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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 41

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

The Owners of the Republican Party..... 44
The Senate's Parochialism 44
The Trouble with Our Shipbuilding..... 45
The Wall Street "Curb Scandal"..... 46
The Simple Life in College..... 46

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

The Economic Association at Chicago..... 47
Winter Exhibition of the Academy..... 48

CORRESPONDENCE:

Lawlessness at the Top 50
University and Technological School..... 50
Burton Rediviyus 51
Bürger's Letters 51

NOTES..... 51

BOOK REVIEWS:

Lee and Longstreet 53
The Marriage Institution 55
Fifty Years of Fleet Street 56
Men of the Covenant 56
The Early Institutional Life of Japan..... 57
Apollo 58
The Story of Art Throughout the Ages..... 58
Work and Wages 59
Russian Life and Society 59
The Georgics of Virgil 59

BOOKS OF THE WEEK..... 60

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 19, 1905.

The Week.

President Roosevelt has come to the conclusion that the Panama Canal Commission was badly conceived and has worked badly. A year ago, of course, it was a monument of American sagacity in dealing with new problems; but now, it appears, the whole thing was a blunder from its birth. Undoubtedly, a strong argument for reconstructing the Commission can be made from the point of view of executive dispatch of business—to unify and centralize responsibility is the first dictate of efficient administration; but it is to be hoped that the President and Secretary of War do not share the ignorant prejudice against the eminent engineers on the Commission. There has been a foolish outcry that these experts have not "done things." They have wasted a whole year—just think of that!—in making careful studies of routes and plans, as if the true way were not to "make the dirt fly" as long as the money held out, leaving technical questions to take care of themselves. The Administration cannot be thought guilty of endorsing the wholly unfounded criticisms of the engineers, but it should beware lest its impatience to get the canal dug result in its being badly dug. It must be mortifying enough for the President to have to confess that his whole scheme for constructing the canal and governing the canal zone has broken down on his hands. Such plagues coming to him out of Panama would not, however, surprise a Greek, with his notions of Nemesis.

The long and obviously inspired statement of Judge Jones of Alabama in regard to President Roosevelt's attitude towards the South, published on Monday, is merely another proof that it is the President's policy to win back that section of the country. As we have before pointed out, this has been on the cards since the election. Mr. Roosevelt's trips to New Orleans and to Georgia, scheduled for the spring, are part of this effort to end the hostility and distrust which have existed ever since the Booker Washington incident. With Mr. Roosevelt's desire to bring about a better understanding, in both his own interest and that of the white and black residents of the States which constituted the Confederacy, everybody must sympathize who remembers that, in his treatment of the colored men aspiring to office, the President has merely stood for fair play, and for the sound American principle that the color of a man's skin shall not of itself bar him from office. The chief interest which attaches to Mr. Roosevelt's wooing of the South lies, therefore, in the manner. There has been, naturally, much curiosity to see just how far he would go in the direction of a compromise in order to bring about a reconciliation. Upon this point Judge Jones's statement may be accepted as authoritative.

Primarily, it is to be noted that the President has set his face against any reduction of the Southern representation in Congress. At least we are assured that "his Administration will be slow to countenance anything which is harmful to the Southern people," and we have a positive denial that he inspired the recently-introduced resolutions looking to that end. This is in accord with our own information about the President's attitude at this moment. It is, however, very far from being in accord with the Republican platform upon which Mr. Roosevelt was elected. This declared that the Republican party "favors such Congressional action as shall determine whether by special discriminations the elective franchise in any State has been unconstitutionally limited; and if such is the case, we demand that representation in Congress and in the electoral colleges shall be proportionately reduced, as directed by the Constitution of the United States." And Mr. Roosevelt told us last September that, though the Democratic platform was insincere, "our promises may surely be trusted." There are, of course, wide differences of opinion as to the advisability of this action; but the President's position makes it clear that, so far as he is concerned (which means Congress also) the platform, the resolutions of the Union League and the Republican Clubs, and the wishes of thousands of his followers, are to be disregarded—all in the interest of harmony with the South. Under the circumstances, we are glad to know that the President has, at least, not repented of the Booker Washington luncheon. That, Judge Jones tells us, was "not a premeditated affair." It did not mean, we learn, that the President in any way favored the admixture of the races, or "social equality" as it is termed in the South.

It was very cruel of the House to vote that retired army officers above the rank of major detailed to the militia of a State shall not draw the active pay of their grade. This was plainly aimed at Gen. Miles, who is now lending distinction to the militia of Massachusetts by acting as its inspector-general, and whose services ought surely to be worth the trifling $13,000 he would otherwise receive from the Federal Government, particularly as he has just declined to accept any pay from Massachusetts. Why the line should be drawn at majors we cannot understand. A retired colonel or brigadier-general, if physically active, may give as valuable service as any major, and, as Mr. Cockran argued, should not be discriminated against. The action of the House is all the more unpleasant because it is obviously *ex post facto*. Gen. Miles, nine brigadiers, and five colonels are now on duty in various States drawing full pay. But the House must be praised for at last awaking to the swollen retired list of the army. The number of retired brigadier-generals is about 250, and is steadily growing. The whole retired list is now 882. In 1889 there were but 490 retired officers. Since the war with Spain 479 have been pensioned. Many of the retirements with high rank have been deserved; others have been bestowed for political reasons or as a matter of pure favoritism.

Joseph Ralph Burton, United States Senator from Kansas, gets a new trial. The Supreme Court declares that there was sufficient evidence of crime to warrant conviction; but the difficulty is that the original trial court in St. Louis had no jurisdiction, because the unlawful payments were made in Washington and not in St. Louis. Justice Harlan, who dissents, holds that the payments were not completed till the checks were paid by the St. Louis bank. The decision virtually affirms Senator Burton's guilt, legal and moral, but grants him a new trial on mere technicalities. Under the circumstances, no one can blame the Kansas Legislature if it asks Burton to resign. Burton, however, has not hitherto been of the resigning kind. His theory of office-holding—as demonstrated in the evidence brought out in his trial—is to stick as long as you can, and to "work" the job for all it is worth. His enthusiasm for Senatorial perquisites is what brought him into trouble.

One passage in Gov. Johnson's inaugural message has had a startling effect upon the place-hunters of Minnesota. In it he urges upon the State Legislature the desirability of providing for an amendment to the Constitution changing the tenure of office of the Governor from two years to four, and making the incumbent ineligible for reëlection. Further, he points out the necessity for getting the amendment through before his own two years' term expires, and so cutting himself off from any chance of reelection. By these sensible recommen-

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dations Gov. Johnson is said to have "sent a cold chill down the backs of many of his Democratic supporters who were looking for pie, either immediately or in the more remote future." Coming into office as the only elected representative of the Democracy in Minnesota, and in the face of an unusual Republican plurality for the national ticket, Mr. Johnson has met a hungry and numerous tribe of office-seekers. He has listened to hardly veiled threats from politicians who are warning him to be "good" to them on pain of political throttling. But this "bluff" has been met squarely in his initial message.

Few of the retiring Governors are having such kind things said of them as Gov. Aycock of North Carolina—the "educational Governor," as he has been called. The Raleigh *Biblical Recorder* declares that his voice has always been "of peace and for peace, a voice for law, a voice for justice, a voice for equal rights, and a voice, too, for the education of the disfranchised as well as the enfranchised." The *Progressive Farmer* echoes a number of dailies when it says that Mr. Aycock retires to private life "recognized by the public generally as the greatest North Carolinian since Vance." It finds that he has always dared to stand for principle, no matter what the popular clamor against his course, and describes him accordingly as a "brave and fearless statesman." These tributes seem to an observer at a distance well earned in the main, despite Gov. Aycock's connection with the disfranchisement of the blacks; for he is one of the growing number of Southerners whose attitude towards the colored people is that of helpfulness and guardianship.

President Ripley of the Atchison indignantly telegraphed to the *Evening Post* on January 4 that the action of his traffic manager, Mr. Biddle, in the case of the alleged secret rebate, was "right, legally and morally." He has since discovered, however, that there was a "technical violation of the law." Hence he has withdrawn his demand that the Interstate Commerce Commission should give him and Secretary Paul Morton a hearing, in order that they might trample upon the false charges. The incident is sufficiently instructive as it stands. We would only remark that all violations of law are "technical." Criminal statutes have a way of being exceedingly minute and verbally precise, and many a man has been sent to jail for having overlooked some nice point in the law. Railway managers ought to be tolerably familiar with the technique of the Federal statutes by this time; and for one of them to confess to a "technical violation" is scarcely less serious than to be charged, as the Atchison officials were by Commissioner Prouty, with a "barefaced violation." But where is the promised exculpatory statement of Secretary Morton? We hope that in his new zeal to punish the lawlessness in which he himself used to glory, he will not forget the public curiosity about his own plight.

The resignation of A. G. Loomis as vice-president and director of the National City Bank came none too soon. The public was shocked by the jaunty attitude of some of the friends and officers of the institution when Loomis's connection with a singularly disreputable stock-washing swindle was first made known. The excuse was offered that the bank was amply secured in its loans to the syndicate of jobbers, that the so-called "over-certification" was within the letter of the law—in short, that no criminal indictment could lie against Loomis. But in such a case the public is not concerned over technicalities. The point was, that an officer of one of the largest fiduciary institutions of the country was taken red-handed in an attempt to work off a stock of doubtful value on the messenger boys, cab drivers, and frankfurter-peddlers of Broad Street. This was the thing which troubled plain men who make no pretence to expert knowledge of legal or financial matters, and which made the resignation of Loomis necessary to save the reputation of the bank.

Returns of December's American iron production, published last week, are interesting because of their reflection of industrial conditions generally. The iron industry has, in fact, fairly fulfilled, in this curious past year, its traditional function of the "barometer of trade." In May, 1903, the country's monthly iron output reached the maximum of its history—1,713,000 tons. By December of the same year, production had actually fallen to 846,000—a decline of 50 per cent. A brief recovery last spring was followed by fresh relapse to a trifle over a million tons last July, when trade stagnation was general. From that month onward came a slow recovery. The output rose to 1,167,000 tons in August, to 1,352,000 in September, to 1,450,000 in October, to 1,480,000 in November, and finally, last month, to 1,614,000. It will be noticed that the figure is still pretty well below the maximum, and, in fact, it is not very far above the level reached in the short-lived recovery of last May. But the fact that so much lost ground has been recovered is encouraging, when one recalls how accurately the conditions of general trade have been mirrored in the iron statistics of the past two years.

The St. Louis Fair evoked a remarkable body of enlightened opinion from prominent foreign visitors. European newspapers abound in evidences of a better understanding of American conditions, never more valuable than where admiration is tempered with judicious criticism. In Vienna, Baroness von Suttner's impassioned eulogy of the United States as the land of highest ideals, making for permanent peace, has been followed by a sober examination of the causes of our material success by Dr. Kobatsch, Secretary of the Industrial Association of Lower Austria. Instead of dwelling on the "American peril," which has in the past led to the absurd anti-American leagues of Austrian and German officialdom, he advocates the formation of an "America Committee," consisting of men who know the United States, and who shall strive to bring the lessons of American ingenuity home to Austrian manufacturers. Almost equally emphatic as to the need of imitating American models in another field was the architect, Herr Hengerer, of Stuttgart, who, in a public lecture in that city, held up the modest house of the American workingman as a noteworthy example of "sound architecture, practical utilization of space, and comfort attained by simple means." He recommends in particular the introduction into Germany of our sanitary arrangements, the lack of which has kept many strangers from taking up their residence in Stuttgart. The modern private dwellings of our cities Herr Hengerer describes as "often architectural gems, though, it must be admitted, sometimes degenerating into pompous extravagance." Clubhouses, school buildings, public and charitable institutions come in for generous praise, while churches, hotels and the huge office buildings are but guardedly referred to. It is gratifying to find in Berlin, as in Vienna, warm recognition of our philanthropic endeavors, such as has been accorded to our hospitals by the eminent pathologist, Prof. Johannes Orth. He spoke of them, after his return from this country, as in many respects the most complete institutions of their kind, thus reinforcing the previous praise of Professor Lorenz of Vienna.

"For a nice, clane, aisy job," said the gentleman with the pick in the bottom of the sewer, "I'd like to be a bishop." The common illusions on this point have been dispelled by the Bishop of London, who has recently published what may be called "an episcopal balance-sheet." He states that in three years the place cost him £5,000 over and above his salary. The details of his expenditures show that his salary is eaten up by fixed charges, the extent of which must surprise the man in the ditch. The Bishop is forced to maintain Fulham Palace, not because he himself could not live in comfort in "a

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small flat in the centre of London, and possibly a cottage just outside," but because he must entertain the ordination candidates; he must give great garden parties to the clergy, their wives, and their children. But, above all, he must keep up the palace and its grounds for the boys who use the field for football and cricket, and in the summer every Saturday for the hundred factory girls or boys from the slums, or tired women, or men's clubs, who have tea in the garden. The £10,000 which, according to popular fancy, enables the Bishop to roll in luxury, is more than spent, partly in enabling him to support a state suitable to his position, and partly in carrying on ecclesiastical and philanthropic enterprise. All of which goes to show that the lot of the emerged tenth is in some respects as painful as that of the submerged tenth.

The election of M. Paul Doumer to preside over the Chamber of Deputies indicated the further weakening of M. Combes's Government. On the denunciation of the Concordat and the army spy system Doumer had taken sharp exception to the Ministerial policy. He belongs to that class of Radicals which deprecates the parliamentary alliance with the Socialists. His prestige has been steadily rising of recent years. Passing from a schoolmaster's and journalist's desk to the Chamber and thence to the governorship of French Indo-China, he established a solid and brilliant record as a colonial administrator. His promotion to the presidency of the Chamber is significant, because he believes, with many of the old Moderate Republicans, that a truly Republican Government can live without the votes of the Socialist members. On this issue, the *Temps* has been conducting a poll which comes out with the above comforting assurance. M. Combes's weakness lay not merely in the distrust of his more conservative followers; the Socialists were far from easy in their loyalty. The other day, ex-Minister Millerand, in a public address, disapproved Combes's ruthless haste in breaking the historic bonds with the Vatican. The general aspect, and a bare majority after a passionate personal defence, have decided M. Combes to resign.

People who look to the price of public securities of belligerent Powers to throw some light on the actual situation in a war, may have been puzzled by the movement of Japanese and Russian bonds since Port Arthur's fall. Japanese 4 per cents rose 1½ points on the London Stock Exchange in the two or three days after the surrender, but have now gone back to the price which they held before the news. Russian 4 per cents, in the same period, fell 1 per cent., but recovered all the loss. Allowing for payment of the January coupons, both bonds now sell at the price of December 31. This might appear to mean that no importance whatever is attached in financial circles to the fall of Port Arthur. The truth is, that the markets, as their habit is, had "discounted" some weeks in advance the effect of the Japanese success. During December, Japanese bonds rose 2½ points in London, while "Russians" fell 1¾. Furthermore, the top price for the Japanese securities a fortnight ago was the highest since the outbreak of the war, and represented a rise of 16 points since April, whereas the price simultaneously touched by Russian 4s was barely 2 points above the lowest figure reached in all the period of hostilities, and marked a decline of 6 points since April. It is probable that, if a general belief had existed, on the markets, that Port Arthur's surrender meant early termination of hostilities, advance in Japanese bonds, and probably in "Russians" as well, would have been very rapid. But predictions of early peace have not had great weight.

Russian state papers, it has often been observed, are generally of an extraordinarily personal character. So the note to the Powers complaining that China has been unable to fulfil her obligations as a neutral may reasonably be interpreted as a grimace—a natural outlet for emotion in a distressing situation. But it also hints at very grave possibilities in case the war should be prolonged. What if the Czar's generals should be ordered to assist the Chinese Emperor in living up to his duties as a neutral? From a military point of view a flanking movement through northern China would have its obvious attractions. To be sure, Secretary Hay's collection of adherences to the principle of immunity for the "administrative entity" of China stands in the way. But it is doubtful if the Powers would make good their professions by force. It would be a case, indeed, in which military interference of an effective sort would be very difficult. At present, one may assume that no such design is seriously entertained. In case of another reverse near Mukden, however, and the continuation of the struggle, a descent upon Liaotung Gulf west of the present seat of operations would be a natural counsel of desperation. Accordingly, the Russian circular with its grave implications constitutes another strong argument for prompt negotiations for peace.

The German Emperor's insistence that it is the duty of the Imperial Government to bring its influence to bear upon the great coal strike now in progress in the Rhenish-Westphalian mining district, pointedly recalls what took place in Pennsylvania in 1902. True, so far as has yet appeared, there is no question of union or non-union labor involved in the German struggle. The number of possible strikers is estimated at 300,000, and of these only about 111,000 belong to the four workmen's associations. The oldest union controls 60,000 men; the Hirsch-Duncker Association, 1,000; the Polish, 10,000; and the "Christian Workers' Guild," 40,000. But in both cases the laborers locked horns with the most powerful association of mine-owners in their countries. While there are other coal-mining districts in Germany, notably in Silesia, the Rhenish-Westphalian mines are as essential to the public welfare in South Germany as are the Pennsylvania mines to the inhabitants of the eastern portion of the United States. A curtailing of the coal supply, particularly in view of the unusually severe winter weather prevailing in Germany, is certain to be widely and quickly felt, despite the use of peat, wood briquettes, and other substitutes for coal in the homes of all classes.

The Federal and State governments in Germany have a much deeper interest in this strike than had those of Pennsylvania and the United States two years ago. When Mr. Roosevelt and his advisers were casting about for a reason for his intervening, there were frequent references in the press to the need of coal for the navy as a reason why Uncle Sam should take a hand. In Germany the national and State ownership of railroads makes the various governments the largest consumers of coal. It is true, there are important public mines, particularly in Prussia's territory. That State has always pursued the policy of owning mines in the various districts within its boundaries, practically controlling all those in the Saar region and producing one-fourth of the coal mined in upper Silesia. Its recent attempt to obtain a foothold in the Rhenish-Westphalian district, the scene of the present strike, by the purchase of the Hibernia mine, came to naught last fall, as was chronicled in these columns at the time. The reasons why it sought this property are also the reasons why the sympathy of the German public is likely to be on the side of the strikers. The Rhenish-Westphalian Coal Syndicate has steadily refused to follow the Government's example in selling directly to the farmers' associations at the same prices given to the large coal dealers. A Trust, *qua* Trust, is no better beloved in Germany than in the United States. It is to be noted, also, that the disposition of the strikers is preëminently peaceable, and that they have formed their own police to aid in preventing disorder. What the Emperor will do next, since his interference failed to prevent the declaration of a wholesale strike, remains to be seen.

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THE OWNERS OF THE REPUBLICAN PARTY.

Various explanations are offered of the sudden opposition in Congress to the President's plans for tariff revision. The trouble is said to be this or that; one difficulty or another is reported to be blocking action. But these pretences and excuses thinly disguise a glaring and ugly fact. The owners of the Republican party are asserting their rights of property. In a word, the protected interests, the tariff beneficiaries, have sent word to Washington that this nonsense about cutting away the abuses and monstrosities of our tariff laws must stop. The unexpected revival of the brute stand-pat doctrine in the House is not a spontaneous movement: it has all the marks of being in obedience to outside orders. Everything was going smoothly; Representative after Representative was assenting to Mr. Roosevelt's contention that the tariff should be modified, when suddenly pressure from without was applied. Then the pure mind of Gen. Grosvenor began to be filled with horrid doubts; the Pennsylvania and Ohio delegations were seized with patriotic fears; and soon the President was informed that a majority of the Republicans in the House had decided that his tariff proposals would "disturb business," and that therefore they must be dropped.

The case is clear to the close observer. This revolt against the chosen and triumphant leader of the party has nothing personal about it. The Republicans who have put their names to a document practically repudiating Mr. Roosevelt have no wish either to thwart or to humiliate him. They simply act according to the prompting of a power too mighty for them. They are creatures of the party organization, and upon that the grip of protection is firmly fastened. The men who have financed the party machine do not propose to surrender the *quid pro quo* which they got in the shape of tariff favors. They angrily ask, "May we not do what we will with our own?" And considering the Republican party as their own, they have imperatively told its leaders in Congress to quit their fooling about the tariff.

These mysterious gentlemen behind the Congressional arras do not condescend to give reasons for their edicts. As Macaulay said of Southey, reason has no place at all in their minds, as either sovereign or slave. They never trouble themselves to answer the arguments of their opponents. To them it is a sufficient account of the way in which they have arrived at their decisions to say that it is their will and pleasure to have reached them. And they work themselves up into a fine glow about the sacredness of property. Have they not bought and paid for tariff legislation? Does not the obligation of a contract exist between them and the Republican party? What, then, are we coming to if it can coolly be proposed to set aside vested rights like theirs? They have been applying their favorite methods to this tariff business; their recipe always being, when any trouble is threatened, to "go out and buy somebody or something." They have raised money to subsidize newspapers and put a first mortgage on the Republican organization. The latter they are now threatening to foreclose. That is the real secret of the antagonism with which President Roosevelt is at present confronted.

Whether he is greatly surprised at it, we do not know. He has, however, no reason to be. From the time of his first timid and somewhat vacillating references in 1902 to the desirability of tariff changes, he must have seen with what huge resentment the feasters at the protective-tariff table regarded his meddling. He was left to subside for the time being, and wrote his letter of acceptance last summer like any stand-patter of them all—though, as usual in his public utterances, he inserted a few qualifying phrases to which to point in case he changed his mind. But, after the election, he thought he was at liberty to put his own interpretation upon the verdict of approval which he received direct from the people. His passion to improve was known, and he felt that he had obtained a mandate and had the capacity to perform. Yet he must have known, if he stopped to reflect, that the great protected corporations which had used the party for their own ends, would not without a struggle allow him to employ it for the public good. To-day they face him in sullen opposition. Their puppets in Congress know where the master's crib is located, and obediently set themselves up against the elect of all the people.

The way in which the President meets this rude challenge will show what manner of man he is. It will also furnish a good index to the success or failure of his coming four years. The time for wheedling and compromise and deferred hope is rapidly passing. In the next Congress, Mr. Roosevelt will doubtless have a greater number of willing supporters. At first, anyhow, the fifty or sixty Republicans of the House who know that they rode into office solely on the coat-tails of the President, will naturally be grateful to him—although he will doubtless find, in too many cases, that their gratitude takes the form of expectation of favors to come. But the Old Guard of protection will still be there, still in control of the organization; and if it is ever to be fought and routed, Mr. Roosevelt cannot begin charging at it too soon. As its obvious game is delay, and evermore delay, his tactics should be prompt aggressiveness. And surely his point of attack is precisely this arrogant and indecent assumption of a handful of protected manufacturers that they own the Republican party, body and soul. They have placed themselves, a stolid force, athwart the path of tariff reform, in which the President, fresh from his endorsement by 7,000,000 voters, proposes to walk. It is for him to decide whether he will permit his party to be disgraced, and his great office derided, by a few men setting up their selfish wishes against his deliberate judgment and the desire of the people.

THE SENATE'S PAROCHIALISM.

Mr. Roosevelt has put his foot down in the matter of the arbitration treaties. The Senate, he says, may take them or leave them; no amendments will be considered by the Executive. On this issue every patriotic citizen should be with the President, for the amendments mooted in the Senate are, at best, as Mr. Roosevelt has written to Senator Cullom, "a mere matter of surplusage"; he might with equal truth have said that they were an expression of the generally meddlesome attitude of the Senate in all diplomatic affairs.

There is no doubt that the Senate is deliberately seeking to affirm the same extra-constitutional right of initiative over treaties that it has already established over executive appointments. In a sense, then, certain of the patches to be affixed to Mr. Hay's treaties are merely a brand which may certify to the world that the Senate claims them as its own. And the form taken by the amendment, namely, that the treaties shall not be applied to specific disputes without the consent of the Senate, is particularly despicable. It is the sign that the Senate wishes to abridge the power of the President, and, so far as possible, to exercise itself the powers of the Department of State. Evidently, a treaty which becomes operative only on the promulgation of another treaty, has the value merely of a benevolent expression of intention. Mr. Roosevelt, then, is right in preferring the outright rejection of the arbitration treaties to their emasculation.

But, to do the Senate justice, usurpation is possibly a secondary motive for this treaty tinkering. The form of the amendments excluding the State debts from the jurisdiction of arbitration manifests a peculiar parochialism; a complete failure to grasp either the letter or the spirit of the treaties; a strange inability to understand the generous aspirations of the world, as illustrated by the arbitration movement. In 'The Federalist,' LXIII., is expressed the hope that the Senate may repair America's "want of character with other nations" by considering all measures "by the light in which they would prob-

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ably appear to the unbiassed part of mankind." Contrast with this pious forecast the unintelligent pettifogging about the State debts now revealed by the President's patient explanation to Senator Cullom that the treaties will naturally not supersede the Constitution. It may be felt that a certain uneasiness as to repudiated financial obligations of his own State is natural in a Senator, and that the amendments properly characterized as "surplusage" by Mr. Roosevelt are, after all, a pardonable effort to make assurance doubly sure. Let this apology go for what it is worth; no such excuse will cover an habitually sullen attitude of the Senate towards the cause of the world's peace.

The principle of arbitration is no longer in question, as it was, except with the more enlightened, perhaps, when the Senate voted down the Olney-Pauncefote treaty in 1898. That action deprived this nation of the honor of being a pioneer in the peace movement. At that time the fretful and suspicious bearing of the Senate illustrated John Jay's words—applied to those who feared the special prerogatives of that body—"However useful jealousy may be in republics, yet when, like bile in the natural, it abounds too much in the body politic, the eyes of both become very liable to be deceived by the delusive appearances which that malady casts on surrounding objects." Precisely this unreasonable distrust of a new-fangled kind of treaty seems to have actuated the upper house six years ago; to-day a repetition of the old shuffling would be tenfold more inexcusable. The stone that a parochial Senate then rejected has become the head of the corner. France, England, Italy, Germany, Switzerland, Austria are now bound by a nexus of arbitration treaties. M. Delcassé has made the framing of such conventions his chief concern; Lord Lansdowne has congratulated England because arbitration has become the fashion. Everywhere in the civilized world the movement has been greeted enthusiastically, not because it promises Utopian things, not that it can in the near future abolish war, but that it does bring under the peaceful arbitrament of international courts a large number of disputes that formerly constituted possible causes of war. In a word, the past year has strikingly confirmed Mr. Hay's foresight and practical good sense in negotiating arbitration conventions as widely as possible. Everybody worth considering, we have said, has accepted this beneficent principle. The Senate alone has refused to move on with the world; it is to-day indulging the obsolete fears of a decade ago; is treating a matter of universal import in the same spirit of ultra-parochialism with which it considers the cause of the American beet or the fish-oil industry.

The tragedy and comedy alike of the situation lie in the fact that such considerations of local interest as frequently dictate Senatorial action are absent in the matter before us. No campaign contributions will be larger or smaller, whatever the fate of Mr. Hay's treaties; no constituencies richer or poorer. In fine, the Senate opposes to the rare and tried ability of Mr. Hay and the judgment of half-a-dozen chancelleries its own declining dignity. Is it safe, it asks, to approve any agreement that will make merely Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Hay, unassisted by Senatorial wisdom, the judges of our national honor? Can we sleep o' nights when a case may any time go before an international tribunal without the O. K. of the Sugar or the Steel Senator? The position is grotesquely untenable. Secure in apparent immunity, the Senate may once again prefer its own pique to the will of the nation as expressed by President Roosevelt. If it does so it will be merely hastening by so much the day when its method of election will be changed, and its rules so reformed that it will cease, on either parochial or merely personal ground, to be an obstructor of the world's traffic.

THE TROUBLE WITH OUR SHIPBUILDING.

Sir William H. White, the eminent English naval constructor, has been contributing to the London *Times* a series of articles on American shipbuilding, with special reference to naval construction, which embody his observations during a recent visit to this country. He is not only the leading British expert, and a former chief constructor of the royal navy, but a teacher who has especial interest in the American fleet, because some of our best constructors were once his pupils, and he himself designed two of our early cruisers. It is, therefore, worthy of note that this foreign critic has in the main only praise for our naval achievements. Of our constructors he has a very high opinion; our Government gun factory at Washington is a "fine establishment, well equipped, and well organized"; it is greatly to the credit of naval ordnance officers that they hold "such a leading position in the manufacture of guns and explosives." Some of the finest nickel-steel work yet produced was shown to Sir William; our armor-plates are "admirable in quality and uniformity"; our warships compare very favorably with the latest foreign cruisers and battleships.

All this praise will cause Mr. Roosevelt and our naval officers to rejoice. But, for the general public, aside from the assurance that the great navy we are paying for is a well-built one, Sir William White's views of our private shipyards will be of most value, at this time of depression in the industry and of discussion of Government aid to ship-owners. Calling attention to the policy of our Navy Department to encourage the development of private establishments capable of building all classes of warships, even to the extent of giving contracts to firms wholly without the staffs or establishments to undertake them at the time of the award, our English observer finds that the general result of this "bold policy has undoubtedly been satisfactory from the public point of view." While he seems to approve the Navy Department's action, some of the evils which inevitably result when an industry has been forced by the liberal bestowal of Government pap do not escape him. The owners of the fifty millions invested in the industry, we may assure Sir William White, are those, next to Mr. Roosevelt, who are most clamorous for a great navy. They are the ones, as he records, who are most anxious to prove the fallacy of the Government's plan to build some of its vessels in its own yards, and who are eagerly awaiting action on the report of the special commission to investigate the decay of our mercantile marine. For them, navy-yards are created only to make minor repairs and to refit the cruising vessels.

Sir William White was particularly impressed by the magnitude of the Newport News Shipbuilding Company's works, advertised as the largest "in the Western Hemisphere, if not in the world." He remarks, however: "At present it has very large Government contracts; but one wonders how, under existing conditions, it and the rival establishments in the United States can secure sufficient employment to give an adequate return on the capital invested." Of course, he says nothing of the water which has only just been squeezed out of the stock of many of these establishments. Elsewhere he records the growing uneasiness at signs of a decrease in the Government appropriations.

As a matter of fact, the whole shipbuilding situation in the United States is easily summed up. Great establishments have been created, not in response to an economic demand, but almost solely with a view to building warships. Half the shipyards could more than take care of all the legitimate commercial business of the country, which is limited by absurd navigation laws. The shipping industry is, moreover, protected so highly that no American may buy a ship abroad and import it unless he desires it for his pleasure. As a result, in a slack time there is acute embarrassment and a scurrying to Congress for more pap to sustain these artificially-created establishments. More battleships and more cruisers are demanded; when this supply seems to be curtailed because of a deficit in the revenue, then there are loud calls for a reviving of the merchant marine—again by wholly artificial means. New lines are to be created. Because of an in-

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creased export trade? Not at all; by reason of the fact that the Republican party is willing to make good the difference between profit and loss in the running of the steamers by grants out of the general Treasury. In other words, merely for the purpose of having a great war fleet, we must pay, first, enormous sums for the ships, and then must keep on paying gratuities so that the shipyards will not go out of business.

Such a foolish economic policy carries its own punishment with it in the long run. At our present rate of naval construction, we shall soon have all the navy that even a Roosevelt can demand. It will be, moreover, almost wholly a new navy—that is, the majority of the ships will have been launched since 1899. Replacements will not keep the private shipyards busy. General arbitration treaties, or an agreement to disarm in part, would conceivably stop even this much building. Meanwhile, with the true remedies at hand, Congress thinks only how it can give public money to private businesses.

Sir William White shows in one lucid sentence how the tariff hampers our shipbuilders. He is convinced that our steel-makers produce shipbuilding steel more cheaply than the English, but finds that they sell it to shipbuilders at a price *40 to 50 per cent. greater* than the corresponding cost of shipbuilding steel in England! Thanks to this triumph of protection, English shipbuilders rub their hands in glee, and build hundreds of ships that should be the work of our own gifted engineers and constructors and our exceptionally intelligent workmen. Abolish the tariff on steel and iron; do away with the Government incentives to needless shipyards; repeal the navigation laws, and there would be no demand whatever for subsidies to shipowners and shipbuilders. Our flag would once more cover the seas.

THE WALL STREET "CURB SCANDAL."

We took occasion, at the time of the United States Shipbuilding scandal of 1903, to point out that certain experienced financiers, personally identified with that famous promotion, either were engaged knowingly in a discreditable business, or else had displayed a simplicity which would hardly be expected from a financial greenhorn. It appears to us that the same awkward alternative arises in connection with the "Montreal and Boston" promotion scandal at present in the courts. The testimony of implicated parties is now complete enough to establish conclusively the main facts in the matter, and we think they call for some decided comment.

The "Montreal and Boston" promotion was in itself an insignificant affair; it became important only because of the manner in which a fraudulent undertaking was brought near to success, and because of the very striking light which it throws on some other recent occurrences in the financial markets. The property involved consisted of some mines and mining claims, chiefly in British Columbia. On acquiring some other properties, of no great apparent value, the stock of the concern was increased from $3,000,000 to $7,500,000. This new stock sold on the Boston Exchange, last autumn, at a trifle over $1 per $5 share. The promoters, however, were looking to New York, not to Boston, and it was on the Broad Street curb that "Montreal and Boston," like United States Shipbuilding, made its spectacular appearance. As in the Shipbuilding affair, some of the active promoters were, financially speaking, mere nobodies. The man who appeared as the responsible agent in the promotion, according to his own testimony, had been a Canadian haberdasher before engaging in mining promotions. The brokers enlisted to facilitate their New York undertaking were a firm the nature of whose business might readily be inferred by the "tips" and "pointers" of their flaunting advertisements. Under these auspices, the task of "working up" the stock to three times its existing market value was begun. The procedure employed was so brazen as to result in denunciation from the "curb brokers" themselves, whose consciences are reasonably easy. It was perfectly understood by every one, except the numerous victims who were decoyed from the "outside" during the rise in the stock from $1 to $3.50 per share. It consisted in hiring one set of curb brokers to bid for the stock at rising prices, while another group would sell it, only at a continuous advance. To the simple-minded, the course of prices seemed to indicate genuine absorption; how many of them bought on the inducement of this old financial "shell-game," is purely a matter of conjecture. One of the "brokers" has testified that he paid $1 per share for stock which he was instructed to sell at once, to some one else in the game, for $3.

We should hardly devote so much space to a vulgar imposture of the sort but for the quarters in which moral if not legal complicity in the affair has been convincingly established. The one thing which puzzled even experienced watchers of "Montreal and Boston" on the curb was where the manipulators got their money, for even a mining stock cannot be "rigged" for nothing. The investigation in the court proceedings against the bankrupt Munroe house for conspiracy to defraud has shown, not only that some highly respectable financial names were signed to the "underwriting agreement" of which these curb operations were the outcome, but that the vice-president and "credit man" of the largest bank in this city was a director in the Montreal and Boston and a member of the underwriting syndicate, and that he had been granting accommodation at his bank day after day, and on the easiest terms imaginable, to the adventurers behind this shady curb undertaking. Figures showing the disreputable use made of such borrowings have been produced in court. On one day, "Munroe & Munroe," having borrowed $60,000 from the City Bank, bought 99,200 shares of their own stock on the curb and sold 94,425. Another day, they bought 94,000 shares for $271,000 and sold 87,000 for $275,000. It was a petty swindle, precisely along the lines simultaneously practised by some larger "plungers" on the Stock Exchange itself. These sordid details, however, with the figures involved duly enlarged, throw all the necessary light on the series of "million-share markets" with which our brilliant "manipulators" entertained Wall Street and the financial world at large last October.

Commenting, a month ago, on the Stock Exchange crash which followed that notorious humbug, and the responsibility which respectable banks incurred for providing the means for the inflation of the market, we observed:

> "It is no answer to say that the bank must lend to any one presenting marketable collateral, and that these people proffered such security. One does not hear of this sort of fast-and-loose use of depositors' money by the great banks of Paris and London. Our feeling is that the spectacle presented in the money market of the past two months—of notorious speculators borrowing money to buy stocks, securing those loans by the very stocks thus bought, advancing prices ten or fifteen points through the magnitude of their purchases, increasing their loans to precisely that extent because of the rise in value of the collateral, and straightway throwing into the speculative market the extra capital thus procured—is utterly discreditable to a sober banking community."

We doubt if anything could have happened which would more obviously confirm this statement of the case than the "Munroe & Munroe" episode. What the business community is likely now to ask is, What will the banking community do about it? It is alleged that the offending "credit man" of this particular episode acted on his own responsibility, and without the knowledge of his superiors. That may be so; but, very clearly, reputable banks must somehow enforce such rules as require their responsible officers to abstain from disreputable business. The injury to the whole banking community from the alliance of great banks with stock-market "rigging" need not be argued. Such incidents give too much color to the most slanderous accusations against Wall Street as a whole.

THE SIMPLE LIFE IN COLLEGE.

The story is told that a New York multi-millionaire, wishing to call on his son, an undergraduate in a New England

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university, hunted up the private dormitory of which the young gentleman was an inmate. The unsophisticated elder was amazed at the magnificence of the structure. The liveried custodian—or curator—of the palace was very gracious in answer to inquiries, and promised to communicate with the lad's "man." That functionary, also in livery, regretted to say that his master was out with his footman and four-in hand. The father, however, was allowed to sit down and wait in the son's gilded parlors. When the darling boy arrived, the indulgent parent could do nothing but gasp, "How will you live when you come to New York and really have some money to spend?"

This tale we commend to the attention of the Hon. John De Witt Warner, Cornell, '72. While the simple-life is being praised enthusiastically by people who would faint at the thought of living it, Mr. Warner comes forward with the suggestion that college is eminently the place to begin the good work. In a recent issue of the *Cornell Alumni News* he takes up the theme of the extravagance of college boys of to-day, and the burden which this extravagance lays upon families of modest means. "Has not the American university," he asks, "lacked of late that experience in simplicity and economy that until lately was its characteristic?" Mr. Warner does not insist that in all respects the Spartan regimen was better, but he is not happy over the fact that the expense of student life at Cornell is roughly 50 per cent. greater than it was before 1885. What he says of Cornell is, *ceteris paribus*, true of most other Eastern colleges. The money, according to Mr. Warner's investigations at Cornell, is spent on more spacious and more elaborately furnished rooms, on more expensive board, on clothing and service—"from carfare to valet attendance"—and on more costly entertainments in class, club, and society. Mr. Warner holds, however, that the modern rooms are not more healthy and comfortable than the old; that the board is "no more nourishing of brain or brawn"; and that the better wardrobe is often superfluous and in bad taste. He adds:

> "In short, a large part of the added cost that burdens parents, obstructs education, and tends to ostracize those who must deny themselves, springs from an unhealthy aping of maturity by boys, vanity that enriches the back at the expense of the head, pride in cost and possession, rather than taste for the beautiful or sense of fitness; and adds to the things which one learns to need, rather than to one's power to get what he ought to want."

From this diagnosis few careful observers will, we believe, dissent; none can deny that at the critical period of life too many young men are acquiring habits that make them the slave rather than the master of circumstances. For these evils Mr. Warner suggests two remedies: a raising of entrance requirements, and an addition to the facilities for advanced work, so as to attract more exclusively the really serious young men; and "such provision for residence and study as shall promote simplicity and economy in student life."

Mr. Warner's plan of bringing the college nearer to the level of a professional school in earnestness and quality of work has certain evident merits. Even if the standard of admission were not raised, most colleges could stiffen the curriculum and make the courses harder, without damage to the student's mind, health, or morals. Though we by no means subscribe to the theory that all soft courses should be abolished, we are convinced that many of them should. A college can be so honeycombed with them that it becomes an asylum for the lazy and incompetent, a place where the leisure of rich men's sons will suffer no great interruption. But while a curriculum so organized as to leave less time for idling would be of some help, the raising of entrance requirements would in itself do little more than thrust on the secondary schools the problem of disciplining spoiled spendthrifts.

A college dining commons and a dormitory system are what Mr. Warner has chiefly in mind as provisions to promote simplicity and economy. He would have "plain—even severe—arrangements and appointments." This is all very well, so far as it goes; but a student who will put $800 into papering a room can prove to the world that plain walls do not a prison make, nor Parker House bars a cage. To hold the lavish youth in check would call for more paternal intervention than is now usual in college. Whether such an extension of paternalism is desirable we gravely doubt. The rich have already shifted most of the responsibility for the breeding of their children upon nurses, kindergartners, school teachers, and college professors. If the father or mother will not limit allowances to minors and will not demand accountings, the college is really helpless. Its supervision of petty details of taste, and even morals, will serve merely to irritate the undergraduate without improving his habits.

The trouble lies too deep to be reached by faculty rules. Not even the wisdom of a university senate can cure the malady from which so many students suffer—foolish parents. To begin three generations back in educating a child, though obviously desirable, is impracticable. The colleges must continue to do their best with the refractory material at hand. The extravagant undergraduate is but one product of an era in which men have acquired money ten times as fast as they have acquired culture. They splurge, their wives splurge, their sons and their daughters splurge. But if our college professors and other moralists do not lose their heads—a disaster which their present salaries render unlikely—we may be saved by the slow process of education. We are optimistic enough to hope that, desperate as the outlook may be, the great-grandchildren of the people who now give monkey dinners will be well-bred and restrained students, and, after they receive their degrees, public-spirited gentlemen and scholars.

THE ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION AT CHICAGO.

January 6, 1905.

The sunshine and roses of the New Orleans meeting of 1903 of the American Economic Association, as contrasted with the blizzard and lake gale of the Chicago meeting of 1904, constituted an economic contradiction that would have satisfied even the heart of Proudhon. Beginning with an ice-edged hurricane on Tuesday night, December 27, for nearly three successive days the unwary Southerner was left doubtful only as to the relative efficacy of hospital or home treatment for pneumonia. The snows descended and the winds blew and beat upon the clans there gathered, until even the quantity theory of money and the validity of the union shop failed to develop controversial heat, and for once at least economist and sociologist found common interest in discussion of the influence of climate upon conduct. Anything short of the cordial reception and warm hospitality extended the Association by the University of Chicago and its members would, under these circumstances, have resulted in a far less successful meeting than was actually the case. As it was, a large and representative attendance enjoyed peculiar facilities for close and frequent personal association—an advantage which each successive meeting establishes more clearly as the real end of such gatherings. The programme was judiciously arranged, the papers clear and able, and the discussion, if perhaps too formal, at least thoughtful and succinct.

Beyond all question the event of the meeting was the presidential address of Professor Taussig on Wednesday evening, on "The Present Position of the Doctrine of Free Trade." In breadth of view, in sobriety of treatment, and in lucidity of expression it easily took rank as a notable deliverance. The tenor of the address is precisely indicated by the title. Forty years ago the doctrine of free trade seemed to be triumphant alike in the judgment of thinkers and in the policy of the leading countries. Since then the current has been reversed, slowly but steadily, and country after country has joined the protectionist ranks, while the change in temper among economic thinkers has been not less striking; and, so far as the doctrine of free-trade is concerned, enthusiasm has been supplanted by cautious weighing or open doubt. In succession the speaker reviewed those aspects of the tariff controversy of which most is heard in popular discussion in this country—the benefits of imports and exports, the relations of domestic and foreign industry, wages; foreign cheap labor, surplus products, overproduction, and dumping. Perfectly objective in his exposition, nowhere yielding to doctrinaire rules of thumb, pressing his analysis throughout to the recognition of the elements of truth in

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opposed views—this part of the address, if nothing more than the running commentary it purported to be, was nevertheless heard and will hereafter be read as a sane and forceful contribution to a discussion marked in the past by much that is both foolish and feeble.

A typical passage in this respect was Professor Taussig's discussion of modern experience in protection to young industries. While such a policy cannot be proved useless, there are certain striking phenomena which prove it to be not indispensable. The besetting difficulty is the handicap upon all purely inductive inquiry in the doings of man: we cannot isolate causes. A protective duty may be followed by an increase of domestic production, by a new and independent industry, by an eventual benefit to the community in the way of cheaper commodities; but the question always will remain whether other causes have been at work, and whether the same result would not have ensued without the tariff in favor of the young industry.

In explanation of the strong hold which protection now has, and bids fair for some time to maintain, in European countries, Professor Taussig recognized the important influence exerted by two factors. The first of these has been the competition of new countries in agricultural products, and the other, the growth and intensification of national feeling. In the United States the maintenance of the extreme and intolerant protection which we have developed seems to be explicable chiefly on historical grounds. The system as it now stands goes back to the civil war, and is the unexpected outcome of the heavy duties then suddenly imposed. It has maintained itself chiefly by the effects of custom and iteration. The industries of the country have become habituated to it, and, what is no less important, public feeling has become habituated to it. In summary, the speaker reduced the essence of the doctrine of free trade to the proposition that, *prima facie*, international trade brings a gain, and that restrictions on it presumably bring a loss. Departures from this principle, though by no means impossible of justification, need to prove their case, and, if made in view of the pressure of opposing principles, they are matter of regret. In this sense, the doctrine of free trade, however widely rejected in the world of politics, holds its own in the sphere of the intellect.

The first regular session on Thursday morning was devoted to the theory of money, with principal papers by Professor Laughlin of Chicago, Kinley of Illinois, and Andrew of Harvard, and less formal contributions by Scott of Wisconsin, Fisher of Yale, and Carver of Harvard. The centre of debate was, naturally enough, "the quantity theory," and, if little new material figured, the opposing arguments were nevertheless aligned with unusual and gratifying clearness.

The session of Thursday afternoon devoted to the trade-union shop attracted the greatest interest. Prof. John R. Commons of Wisconsin presented an intelligent analysis of the causes of the union-shop policy, pointing out that where employment is in the hands of small competing contractors, as in the building and clothing trades, the closed shop is necessary; whereas in the stove industry, bituminous coal mines, and elsewhere, the agreements are open-shop, because the employers' associations are strong and willing enough to enforce the agreement on all of their members, which the union could do only by the strike or closed shop. Dr. John Graham Brooks discussed with characteristic sympathy and clearness the several issues involved. Mr. John Hibbard of Chicago presented a reasonable and intelligent employers' view, and Mr. Thomas Kidd of the Amalgamated Woodworkers defined a rigid and uncompromising trade-unionist attitude. In the discussion which followed, Dr. George E. Barnett of Johns Hopkins suggested that the opponents of the closed shop may be divided into two classes—those who oppose it as a part of the union's mechanism in enforcing collective bargaining, and those who regard the closed shop as synonymous with unreasonable shop rules. The unions have so long framed shop rules without conciliation that a feeling has grown up that these rules differ essentially from questions of wages and hours. This position is indefensible. The formation of employers' associations capable of dealing with such matters is the prime requisite to the extension of conciliation to cover shop rules. Where the principle of conciliation has thus been extended, the open-shop question has become unimportant.

The session on Friday morning, held jointly with the American Political Science Association, was devoted to "Corporations and Railways." Mr. Edward B. Whitney of New York reviewed the various things which Congress can probably do, negatively and affirmatively, in interference with industrial combination. Hon. Martin A. Knapp, chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission, discussed intelligently and judiciously the regulation of railway rates, urging that the true theory of public regulation—that which is best calculated to produce useful results—is to allow the railways to unite with each other in the discharge of their public duties, thereby making it feasible and for their interest to conform in all cases to their published schedules, and to invest the regulating body with authority, after investigation of complaints upon due notice and hearing, to condemn the rates found to be actually or relatively unreasonable, and to prescribe, subject to judicial review, a substituted standard to be hereafter observed.

In a profound and original paper Prof. Henry C. Adams analyzed certain recent tendencies in the law of taxation of railways. The courts have recognized, he pointed out, the existence of a franchise or surplus value in the assessment of corporations, meaning by surplus value a value of the business as a going concern in excess of the inventory value of its physical elements. The present trend in the law of railway taxation rests upon the necessity of applying a different principle of taxation to the surplus of railways from that which is applied to the value of the physical elements which underlie it, or the value of property in general which is exposed to competition.

Preferential tariffs and reciprocity were the topics of the sixth session, on Friday afternoon. Canadian trade theory and policy in relation to the British fiscal controversy and its correlated issues were discussed by Professors Short of Queen's University, Flux of McGill, and Hon. George E. Foster of Toronto, with minor notes by Willis of Washington and Lee, Emery of Yale, and Fisk of Illinois. The final session of the meeting was held jointly with the Historical Association on Friday evening in Northwestern University building. Professor Gay of Harvard presented a scholarly paper on "The Significance of the Enclosure Movement in England," and Hon. Carroll D. Wright described the economic history of the United States projected by the department of economics and sociology of the Carnegie Institution. Professors McMaster of Pennsylvania and Hull of Cornell, for the historians, and Hollander of Johns Hopkins and Seager of Columbia for the economists, took part in the discussion of Col. Wright's paper.

The officers of the Association reported encouraging conditions in its various affairs. Progress was made in dealing with the troublesome question of publication activity by authorizing the executive committee to proceed with the establishment of an Association journal, supplementary to the present monographic series, if such a step be found expedient and practicable. Professor Taussig was reëlected to the presidency, and the Association adjourned to meet in Baltimore with the Johns Hopkins University in 1905. J. H. H.

WINTER EXHIBITION OF THE ACADEMY

WATTS AND SANDYS.

LONDON, December 31, 1904.

The supply of Old Masters in England, though great, is not inexhaustible, and it must be with relief that the Royal Academy this year, for its Winter Exhibition, has an excellent reason to turn to artists who, whatever posterity may decide as to their masterliness, are certainly not "Old" in the accepted sense of the term. The Academy from time to time has reserved a room, or even all the galleries opened in winter, for the work of members who have died within the twelvemonth. This year it has lost not only Watts, of whom it can truthfully be said that he was one of the most distinguished Academicians, but also Horsley, who, though not distinguished in the least, though best known for a very absurd crusade against the nude in art, was one of the most active and efficient organizers of the shows of Old Masters, which for so long have served the Academy as a winter garment of repentance. And so, without Horsley to hunt up new Old Masters, and with Watts calling for a memorial exhibition, the problem this winter has been easily solved. The show to open next Monday (January 2) is one primarily of the "works of the late George Frederick Watts, R.A., O.M." But as the Academy has never hesitated to wear the laurels of "deceased British masters," however it may have ignored them while living, a gallery has been set aside for the works of Frederick Sandys, who also died during the summer. And, indeed, but for the outcry of artists who cared and were not afraid to speak, the chances are that Watts and Sandys would have waited while Whistler was honored. For if Whistler alive was a danger to Academicians, Whistler dead might have the virtue of bringing in shillings at the door.

As it is, Watts has the precedence, and to him five galleries are devoted. It is not

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so many years since a Watts exhibition was held at the New Gallery, and a very representative collection was then got together. Nor, when alive, was Watts an artist who objected to public exhibition, like Rossetti, for instance. He sent regularly every year to the Academy, which therefore never had the excuse to treat him with the indifference that enraged Burne-Jones into resignation from the Academical ranks. He sent as regularly to the spring exhibition at the New Gallery, of which he was from the beginning one of the chief upholders and chief attractions. As a consequence, it cannot be said that the present collection at the Academy has much to tell about Watts that was not known before. A few early works that I, anyway, never remember to have seen, are included, but they only help to confirm one in the impression already formed of the manner and tendency of his development. It is amusing to see his portrait of himself at the age of seventeen (1834), undoubtedly an able piece of work for a student, though it gives no sign of any special originality of style or individuality in expression, though it reveals no seeking after the "soul" that, later on, resulted in such disaster. It is still more interesting to see other early portraits—one of Lady Frederick Cavendish Bentinck the most notable, in which the poses and the careful treatment of a lace cap point to a passing allegiance to Dutch models; or else, as with the "Augusta, Lady Castletown," in which Lawrence seems to have been striving for the mastery; while far more numerous are those revealing Italian influence—for example, the "Mother of Giorgione"; who sat for it, the catalogue does not disclose. These are the performances of the student, the able and accomplished student who has not yet found himself. And there are allegorical or mythical subjects of the same period that make one wish he never had found himself, so much better are they pictorially, so much freer from ethical encumbrance, than the work that followed. Nothing in the exhibition is more charming than a little "Aurora," a graceful goddess (or model) with orange drapery flying, attended by a swarm of *Amorini* floating in luminous space, and it bears in the catalogues the early date of 1842, though, when I first saw it, within the last very few years, I supposed it a recent work and welcomed it as a proof that ethics had not entirely closed Watts's eyes to beauty. A study for an arrangement of "Dryads and Naiads"—whether ever carried further, I cannot say—that belongs to seven years later (1849), has the same charm, and, with its romantic landscape, its figures posing for no other object than to tell in the composition, its passages of splendid color in a bit, here and there, of drapery, shows the artist still influenced by Italian masters, still absorbed in problems of beauty. Nor is it less interesting to see fragments of the cartoon "Caractacus," even if in these fragments beauty seems to have concerned him less, for the simple reason that he was trying to adapt it to mural decoration on a large scale—a more bewildering problem for the student. The cartoon made in 1842 was designed for the competition to decorate the House of Lords. It was not accepted, and, creditable though it be to the young student, perhaps it is as well for the reputation of the artist that it was not. But at least it won him one of the three prizes offered, the sum of £300, and so, by enabling him to go to Italy for further study, had not a little to do in developing his art and shaping his career.

He stayed in Italy from 1842 to 1847. It is easy to understand why, when he returned and began to exhibit his pictures, he must have made something of a stir in the art circles of London. Victorian painters were busy painting trivial little anecdotes in a trivial little way, and here was a youth who looked at the world—or tried to—through the inspired eyes of the great Florentines and Venetians; who had some sense of the dignity of form and the loveliness of color; who painted his sitters as if they were prophets and sibyls just stepped down from chapel or choir walls; who could not stoop to sentiment that had not the possibility of stateliness in its expression, or to anecdote that did not lend itself to noble lines and harmonious color schemes. Watts never associated himself nominally with the rebels of the day, the Pre-Raphaelites, though he was to a certain extent in sympathy with them and ever influenced by them. Some pictures in the present Exhibition, like the "Bianca," for example, present very much the same opulent, sensuous type that Rossetti painted and made essentially his; a picture like "Una and the Red Cross Knight" strikes one now as a re-echo of the "Sir Isumbras" of Millais. But Watts never identified himself with Pre-Raphaelitism, he never accepted the creed and the methods and the subjects of the Brotherhood. Perhaps it is because he thus stood apart that he became so marked a figure among the English artists of the last half of the last century, and perhaps it is because he felt his responsibility as a marked figure, as one apart, that he became more and more absorbed in subject, more and more given to allegory, more and more ready to preach.

The Academy catalogue quotes a note written by Watts for the Catalogue of his Exhibition at the New Gallery. "The great majority of these works," it begins, "must be regarded rather as hieroglyphs than anything else, certainly not as more than symbols, which all Art was in the beginning. . . . In many cases the intention is frankly didactic." But, fortunately, art has not stood still in its first and undeveloped stage; it has long been a great deal more than hieroglyphic or symbolic; its end is beauty, not teaching and preaching. That is where Watts made his mistake. As it has happened with Ibsen in dramatic art, he gradually subordinated the artist to the teacher or the preacher, until in the end he succeeded in being neither the one nor the other. That, however didactic his intention, he was far from finding in paint the right medium for his message to humanity, is proved by the care with which his symbolic or allegoric or didactic canvases are explained in the catalogue, even when they have to do with such hackneyed themes as Faith, Hope, and Charity, Time, Death, and Judgment. On the other hand, how far, artistically, these "Symbols," with their awkward design, their cut-out forms, their harsh color, fall short of the standard the artist first set for himself, may be realized by comparing them to the early Italian experiments made before he had begun to bother about morals and meanings which have nothing to do with art.

It is the same in the portraits. A few early ones of children, and of women in the trying costume of the fifties, are full of character and grace, despite their curious primitiveness — a primitiveness of execution rather than of deliberate intention. A few, like the ever-famous "Mrs. Percy Wyndham," and, still more striking as study of character, the "Countess Somers," and the "Joachim" of 1866, and "Sir Edward Sabine" in wonderfully managed military red and decorations, and the more recent "Walter Crane," explain how, even after Watts had vowed himself to ethics, the artist in him sometimes got the better of the preacher. But in the greater number of portraits, unfortunately, preoccupation with the "soul" of the sitter led to the neglect of the more important pictorial presentment. This is felt now at the Academy, no less than at the National Portrait Gallery, where the fine exceptions always leave one wondering how it was that the man who painted them could also not only paint, but be willing to acknowledge and parade, the rest of the series. In the future, Watts's own generosity to national galleries and museums will be the worst enemy his reputation may have to face.

As I remember the New Gallery collection, it was more impressive and did greater justice to Watts, the artist, than the Academy Exhibition. Fewer works were hung at the New Gallery, and the more one sees of Watts, the more one is conscious of his serious faults and shortcomings. His meaning does not leap to the eye, his defects do. The most popular pictures are almost all here—"Hope," "Life and Love," "Love and Death," "Paolo and Francesca," the many that engravings have made known from one end of the world to the other. But they gain nothing from being seen again. If one little room were hung with only the finest things now shown, a very different impression of Watts as artist would be carried away. But to wander through room after room filled with all these mistaken sermons on canvas is to be impressed chiefly with his weakness—with the unfortunate fumbling and clumsiness and crudeness to which he was led in the endeavor to put upon canvas in paint what canvas and paint were never intended to express. It is often said, in defence of Watts, that he never found his right medium, that he should have done in fresco what circumstances compelled him to do in oil; an indifferent public and an economical Government having refused to provide him with the chance to give the world his most perfect achievement. It may be that his "Charity" and "Destiny" and "Progress" and "Mischief" and the rest would produce the desired effect if executed in fresco for a high frieze or to fill the spandrels of a lofty dome, where the heavy forms, awkward gestures and massive drapery would be modified by distance. But the fact remains that we must look at these designs as Watts gave them to us—as they are now to be seen at the Academy; that is, each as a picture within a frame. And it is impossible to look at them and then at the fine things he could and did do, and not wish that it had never occurred to him, as a duty, to suggest, "in the language of Art, Modern Thought in things ethical and spiritual."

It may have been from the Old Masters

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he loved that Watts borrowed his great vigor in production, which is in such contrast to the anæmic powers—or limits—of most modern artists. Frederick Sandys, in this respect anyway, was typically modern. He produced comparatively little in the seventy years and more of his long life. Even of this little, a great deal might be, and probably will be, forgotten. His masterpieces are his illustrations, few as they are in number. For Sandys was one of the group of artists who made English illustration great in the sixties—really, the Golden Age, as it has been called. He was the friend of Rossetti and Millais and Holman Hunt, and of Whistler too. He lived with Rossetti at one time, and there is no question that his intimacy with the Pre-Raphaelites had its effect on his work, though he never gave his undivided allegiance to their principles. He was a more accomplished draughtsman than any of the Brotherhood, and the designs he drew on the wood are more perfect works of art than almost any big picture they ever painted. The greatest have a place at the Academy—"Danaë," "Amor Mundi," "Harold Harfagt," "Yet Once More Let the Organ Play," and the others—but they are seen only in the prints from the wood engravings. How much was lost in the engraving, one has a chance of learning. Sandys looked upon an illustration as of no less importance than a painting—something to be designed and executed with infinite thought and care; not to be dashed off anyhow as too trivial for him to trouble about. He made elaborate studies of figures to be introduced into the design. At times, he made a finished drawing on paper before he touched the block. Fortunately, in the Academy collection there are two or three frames, giving these studies and drawings, together with the print which was their final result. To compare Sandys's drawing in pen-and-ink with the engraver's version of it, is to deplore the loss. Much of the delicacy vanishes, the line is coarsened and becomes sadly mechanical, the spirit of the original seems to have gone out of it. The engravers of the sixties were conscientious enough, and the average of their work was good; but it needed an artist as great as Sandys to interpret his drawings. It would be interesting to see what Mr. Cole or Mr. Wolf would make of them. Of late years, when the beauty of the illustrations in *Once a Week* and *Good Words* and the shockingly got-up gift books of the period was realized by the younger illustrators at work, and many articles were written about the Men of the Sixties, it was possible to reproduce some of Sandys's drawings by process and photogravure. These, to complete the interest of the exhibition, the Academy should have hung alongside of the wood engravings. But, no doubt, the Academy considered that it had condescended sufficiently in recognizing Sandys at all, after neglecting him while he was alive, to profit by recognition.

Sandys painted a few pictures during the sixties, and they are characterized by the same fine qualities as the illustrations. The most marvellous of all is the "Portrait of Mrs. Stephen Lewis," belonging to the year 1864, and exhibited several times during the last ten years. It is a wonder of Pre-Raphaelitic detail. Millais, in his most fervent days, and Holman Hunt, never equalled it. It is a small half-length of an old lady with gray hair, in a black dress and lace cap, seated in a room, all the detail of which is reflected in the mirror above the mantelpiece behind her. Even the opposite window is reflected, and the landscape seen through it is most minutely rendered. The lace cap is worked out with the elaboration and fidelity of Van Eyck or Memling. Some flowers at her side are treated with no less care. And yet Sandys succeeded, as Van Eyck and Memling succeeded, in bringing all these innumerable facts together into a harmonious whole, and in subordinating them entirely to the human interest of the portrait. The character in the old lady's face loses nothing because of the astonishing exactness with which everything about her is stated. Another presentment of an old lady, "Mrs. Clabburn," also in a white cap, is almost as amazing, though in this the detail is limited to the cap and to a spray of flowers. But in most of the other pictures and portraits (or as many as I have seen) Sandys never approached these two. I know he had high ideals of beauty—I have heard him describe the picture of the perfect woman he meant some day to paint. But in endeavoring to realize them, he came at times perilously near the old "Keepsake" or "Book of Beauty" type. And when he attempted rich, brilliant color, he was apt to overstep the bounds of reticence. He executed a number of portraits in chalk, just tinted here and there. In these there could not be the crudeness of color to which the ambitious arrangement of his paintings sometimes led, but they seem to me too often to be little more than survivals of days when sentiment and prettiness were considered essential to female beauty. Some of the portraits of men in this medium are better—for instance, the fine series of distinguished men of letters he executed for Messrs. Macmillan. But I believe that Sandys's reputation in the future will rest upon a few paintings like the "Mrs. Lewis," and, above all, upon his fine achievement as an illustrator. N. N.

Correspondence.

LAWLESSNESS AT THE TOP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the article entitled "What Ails America?" in your issue of December 1 you fail to suggest a very potent cause of the increase of lawlessness in our country. When the head of our Government shows an indifference to the restraints of law; when the Government, as a whole, shows an eagerness to attack a weaker nation, and, after winning the fight, boasts blatantly of its "glorious victory"; when both Congress and the Executive begin to deny the foundation theories of our laws; when the head of the Government deliberately breaks a treaty with a friendly nation, and then puts the people into possession of a part of the spoil which it had promised to protect; when, finally, he counsels the carrying of a "big stick," what *must* be the effect upon the people? Can it be supposed for one moment that such examples incline men towards respect for law? What more, for instance, does the brutal, cowardly striker want than a big stick, if it is only big enough?

Just as surely as men are conspicuous by their high office, so surely is their example of great influence, and just so surely are our high officials responsible in a great degree for the increasing lawlessness of recent years.—Respectfully,

F. J. Le Moyne.

Isham, Tenn., January 7, 1905.

UNIVERSITY AND TECHNOLOGICAL SCHOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter of "Alumnus" in No. 2,061 of your paper has been of considerable interest to the writer of these lines. While not in a position to enter into a discussion regarding the advisability of a union between the Institute of Technology and Harvard University (although the maintenance of a Scientific School by the latter seems to be more dependent upon "tradition" than upon actual need), the writer wishes to point out that quoting the first part only of the resolution adopted by the Union of German Engineers in Berlin on the 15th of September (not Munich, September 12), as done by "Alumnus," is apt to make a wrong impression upon the reader. According to the *Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, No. 212 (p. 519) of 1904, the resolution reads as follows:

"(1.) Es empfiehlt sich für absehbare Zeit nicht, dem Bedürfnis nach neuen technischen Hochschulen durch Angliederung technischer Fakultäten an Universitäten zu entsprechen, vielmehr ist es durch Errichtung selbständiger Anstalten zu befriedigen; denn die technischen Hochschulen würden in ihrer selbständigen Entwicklung durch Angliederung an Universitäten beeinträchtigt werden. Diese Scheidung soll jedoch die in erfreulicher Zunahme begriffene geistige Fühlung zwischen beiden Anstalten nicht hemmen. Die Angliederung an Universitäten würde auch keineswegs Ersparnisse von Bedeutung mit sich bringen.

"(2.) Der Verein Deutscher Ingenieure steht nach wie vor auf dem Standpunkt seines Ausspruches vom Jahre 1886, welcher lautet: 'Wir erklären, dass die deutschen Ingenieure für ihre allgemeine Bildung dieselben Bedürfnisse haben und derselben Beurteilung unterliegen wollen, wie die Vertreter der übrigen Berufszweige mit höherer wissenschaftlicher Ausbildung.'"

A protracted stay in Germany, during which exceptional opportunity was given the writer to observe present conditions, makes him inclined to ascribe the desire on the part of the engineers to have separate institutions rather than technological faculties at the universities to the mediæval methods of instruction still prevalent at the latter. The "Technische Hochschulen" are already sufficiently hampered by the social conditions imposed upon them by the universities in the shape of the "Corps-student." Against this influence the teachers are powerless, inasmuch as it is fostered from above, and falls in with the bureaucratic principle, which makes it almost incumbent upon a candidate for the "höhere Verwaltungskarriere" to become a member of a "corps" in good standing.

The main objection on the part of the engineers ought to be for educational reasons. Although the German authorities insist upon a university course as a preparation for the higher offices, little is done to make the time thus spent truly profitable to the student. The methods employed are still

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the same as in the time when students could not obtain books. A system which requires a professor to spread over a semester's course of four lectures per week a subject which, on the basis of the "Leitfaden," could be made much more efficient in two lectures per week, is educationally wrong. It becomes morally wrong if the same professor is forced by the authorities to testify (*testieren*)—*i. e.*, to sign his name against the title of his course in the "Kollegienbuch" of any student who has paid the price exacted by the university for that course of lectures, *no matter whether the student has attended or not*, and regardless of the fact that such signatures bestow all the privileges that may be claimed by candidates for particular offices. So long as such methods prevail at the German universities, it seems clear that the polytechnic institutions, which are free from such "traditions," have a great deal to fear and nothing to gain by union with the former.

In the experience of the writer, the presence of the technological faculties at a great university is a distinct gain to all the faculties; and wherever their spiritual union is asserted in good faith by all concerned, it is sure to intensify true culture throughout the entire body of teachers and students.

J. H. S.

BERKELEY, CAL., January 8, 1905.

BURTON REDIVIVUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some of your readers may find entertainment in the following extract from an advertising letter recently sent out by a firm which manages, among other things, the 'Beacon Lights of History':

"Sir Richard Burton, who, some years ago, published for private circulation, and at prices within reach of only very wealthy collectors, that magnificent twelve-volume edition of 'The Arabian Nights' which he translated from the Persian, and which created so much discussion in England, consented, some time ago, to the printing of a second limited edition, a part of which was to be awarded to the booklovers of the United States, but not to be offered publicly for sale."

It is lucky for the author of this paragraph that Burton is dead!

G. F. MOORE.

CAMBRIDGE, January 15, 1905.

BÜRGER'S LETTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Dr. Erich Ebstein of Göttingen is engaged in collecting and editing the correspondence of the poet Gottfried August Bürger. He has reason to believe that not a few of Bürger's letters are preserved in American libraries or are in the hands of autograph collectors in this country, and he is very anxious to obtain information about any such material. Since a new edition of Bürger's letters is much to be desired, I hope that Dr. Ebstein's appeal will not remain without result. His address is Weender Chaussee, Göttingen, Germany.

KUNO FRANCKE.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., January 13, 1905.

Notes.

Longmans, Green & Co. will publish 'The Last Letters of Aubrey Beardsley,' with an introduction by Father Gray; 'Ghost Stories of an Antiquary,' by Montague James; 'A Handbook to Agra and the Taj,' by E. B. Havell; a 'Text-Book of Medical Practice,' by William Bain, M.D.; 'Petrol Motors and Motor Cars,' by T. Hyler White; 'Progress of the German Working Classes in the Last Quarter of a Century,' by Prof. W. J. Ashley; and 'The Tragic Drama in Aeschylus, Sophocles and Shakspere,' by Prof. Lewis Campbell.

McClure, Phillips & Co. announce 'The Complete Motorist,' by A. B. Filson Young.

A new book by Annie Payson Call, author of 'Power through Repose,' is announced by Little, Brown & Co., Boston, under the title, 'The Freedom of Life.'

Dr. Lyman Abbott's recent sermon at Harvard University, which has provoked much comment, is soon to be published in booklet form by T. Y. Crowell & Co. It is entitled "God in his World."

Dodd, Mead & Co. send us volume ii. of Dr. Thwaites's noble edition of the 'Original Journals of the Lewis and Clark Expedition, 1804-1806,' on which we have already discoursed at length. The frontispiece shows the intellectual face of William Clark, and there are several facsimiles of charts from his pencil of the Missouri and its falls. One cannot read this narrative afresh in its unchanged state without marvelling at the minuteness of the record, especially striking in the case of botanical descriptions, but also in many other ways. At page 197 the editor has an interesting note on the word *bier*, which Coues identified with the English word, but which Dr. Thwaites plausibly derives from a French word, *baire*—"that is to say, a large canvas, the ends of which," wrote the Jesuit missionary Poisson in 1727 in the Relations, "we carefully fold beneath the mattress" as a protection against mosquitoes. Elsewhere in this volume our captains speak of a "mosquito-bier," and this inverted may well have served "the Indian woman" for the child's cradle under discussion on the page cited.

The reprint of early travels in America being the fashion, it was commendable to select for A. Wessels Co.'s "Source Books of American History" 'Burnaby's Travels through North America.' The tour occupied parts of 1759-60, but in editions subsequent to the first (in 1775) changes were made with reference to the Revolution which had meanwhile occurred. These are reproduced from the edition of 1798. The author was an ancestor of the soldier-traveller, Frederick Burnaby, killed in the Sudan in 1885. He was a good observer, and his political forecasts were shrewd and sometimes verified. He entered the colonies by way of Virginia, and at Williamsburg saw Col. Byrd's house and the College of William and Mary, afterwards Princeton (Nassau Hall), and Columbia College in its infancy; and there is a bare mention of Harvard. This English clergyman observed slavery with creditable aversion, very temperately expressed, and resting as much on the provisions of the slave code as on actual scenes of wretchedness or cruelty. In the New England chapter the custom of "bundling" is described under the term "tarrying." At p. 145 he writes, of "under way": "This is usually written 'under weigh'; but I am extremely doubtful of the propriety of the phrase."

In six handy and altogether attractive 16mo volumes, Messrs. Putnams have compressed Macaulay's Essays without sacrificing the eyes, for the type is large and clear. Various portrait and other illustrations are scattered up and down, and the binding is in an excellent quiet taste. We wish only for a seventh volume—in other words, for an index, in which would lie the compliment that one who resorts to a convenient form, is not necessarily therefore among those who read only to forget and never to refer.

The eighth volume of Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) extends from Glashütte to Hautflügler. Great Britain is conspicuously treated at length, vieing with Greece; and among persons Goethe overtops every other celebrity with fifteen pages and six portraits. We are reminded by the fusion of the Goethe and Schiller Archives in 1889 that the Swiss, who have just founded a Rousseau Archive, will perhaps look in vain for a Voltaire Archive to amalgamate with it—in a less congruous manner, indeed, though these great antipathetic writers had a common bond of residence on Swiss soil. The one and a half pages devoted to the Hungarian Görgei show that this misconceived patriot is still living. Three-quarters of a page are given to General Grant, whose civil life is painted without softening. Trade (*Handel*) cuts a large figure, and there are illustrated articles on the glass industry and on gold mining. The suspended railway, variously denominated Hängebahn, Schwebebahn, and Luftbahn, in which the car body is swung below the wheels, is interestingly pictured. The range of the volume is shown by such titles as Globe Theatre (Shakspere's), globe-trotter, *go* (the Japanese game borrowed from China, and the oldest known), good-bye, *grande nation*, greenbacks, personal equation (*persönliche Gleichung*). The notice of The Hague does not forget the city's new distinction of the Conference for arbitration. Maps of glaciers and charts of the distribution of domestic animals (*Haustiere*) mingle with the customary geographical maps—British Isles, Greece, Guiana, Upper Guinea, Halle, Hamburg, Hanover, etc.

John Wiley & Sons publish three 'Untechnical Addresses on Technical Subjects,' by James Douglas, LL.D., making a slender volume of eighty-four pages. Their chief theme is mining and metallurgy, and the author pleads for the abandonment of secrecy and exclusiveness with regard to methods and processes. "As a rule, those establishments whose doors are most sedulously closed, are those least worth studying, except as technical anachronisms." Mr. Douglas exhibits in a striking manner the parallel growth of population and of the iron and steel industry of the United States under the stimulus of railroads. "If we multiply by fifty-three the number of miles of railroad in operation in 1840 and the number of tons of pig iron made in that same year by the same multiplier, we get approximately the mileage of track now in existence and the tonnage of pig iron turn-

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ed out by our blast furnaces." "One single Duquesne stack turns out annually as much as the 804 little furnaces did per diem or per annum in 1840." On the Fitchburg Railroad the average freight rate in 1848 was 4.523 cents, in 1897 0.87 cent per ton mile. The third lecture deals with wastes in mining and metallurgy.

The arrangement of 'A School History of the United States,' by Prof. Wm. H. Mace (Rand, McNally & Co.), is based, "as far as practical," upon the ideas suggested in the author's work on 'Method in History.' The arrangement and the presentation strike us as very unsatisfactory. The proportion is better than in many school histories, but still leaves something to be desired. It seems to be impossible to reduce military events to anything like their proper place. In the Revolutionary period it requires thirty-six pages to relate the military events of eight years, while forty-two pages suffice for twenty-one years of peace. This proportion is, however, better than the sixty-three pages given to eight years of war between 1789 and 1865, as against the 109 pages given to the sixty-eight years of peace. The story is, on the whole, well told. Curiously enough, however, it appears more difficult to present both sides of the Revolution than of the civil war. Certainly the student will get from these pages the idea, which he probably already has, that the colonies were quite right in their contentions and in their acts, that they were quite unanimous in their resistance, and that there was no other issue involved than that of home rule. "The bolder citizens . . . formed the . . . Sons of Liberty" (p. 141); the resolutions of the Stamp Act Congress "taught the people their rights" (p. 144); "to cap the climax," Gen. Gage was sent, etc. (p. 152); "conciliation fails *in England*" (p. 154)—expressions such as these leave totally wrong impressions. As usual in books of this kind the "Regulators" movement in North Carolina is quite misunderstood (p. 147). The appendix contains a very elaborate list of questions with references, the Declaration of Independence, an analysis of the Constitution, and varied statistical material.

The appearance of 'A History Syllabus for Secondary Schools' (D. C. Heath & Co.), by a special committee of the New England History Teachers' Association, reminds us of former services which this association has rendered in much the same field. In the present work the object has been to present a carefully analyzed outline, accompanied with references, for the four school courses recommended by the Committee of Seven. There are a general introduction, special introductions for each course, lists of books, and "Bibliographical Notes and Suggestions." It is not proposed that the Syllabus should replace the text-book, but that it should supplement it. Neither is any rigid method of combining the two laid down. On the contrary, it is wisely recognized that circumstances of time and place must determine the use which can be made of the Syllabus, one of the greatest merits of which is that it is adapted to widely differing conditions. The outlines have been very carefully constructed—so highly analyzed, indeed, as to prove a trifle confusing; the selection of books is all that could be desired, and the suggestions are helpful. A few books have so recently appeared as to miss mention, such as Cheyney's 'England,' Bryce's revised 'Holy Roman Empire,' and Munro and Sellery's 'Mediæval Civilization.' For immediate practical use in a great majority of schools, the Syllabus assumes, too readily perhaps, conditions which do not exist, viz., special teachers of history, large city libraries, "historic spots," etc. It is well, however, to set a high standard; certainly the Syllabus is a book which every teacher of history in schools should possess at least, and use if possible.

The Newark (N. J.) Public Library has put forth a list of 'A Thousand of the Best Novels,' to date, ingeniously checked in the making by Denver, Springfield, and A. L. A. lists. "About 700 novels may be classed as obviously 'good,'" says Mr. J. C. Dana, in his introduction. "We think almost any reader would put about 700 of the books in this list in a list of the thousand best which he might compile. About the other 300, opinions would widely differ."

Still another list of 'Books for Boys and Girls' is that approved by the Brooklyn Public Library for use in its children's rooms. It is classified, and gives the publishers' names.

One educational use of a library, said Mr. John Morley at the opening of the public library at Plumstead on December 17, 1904, is the stimulation and improvement of public opinion. In opposition to Sir Robert Peel, who described public opinion as a "great compound of folly, weakness, prejudice, wrong feeling, right feeling, obstinacy, and newspaper paragraphs," he "thought the abundant reading of newspapers was a legitimate and entirely wholesome process, provided that it was not merely idle reading." And he made the admirable suggestion that there should be a newspaper class for the users of the library—chiefly workmen at the Government establishments in Woolwich—in which "somebody should every evening take the events recorded from all over the world in the day's newspaper and explain them, where places were, what the controversy was about, and all the other elements of the world's activity referred to in the newspaper." He deprecated the neglect of the great writers, as Shakspere, Milton, Bacon, and Locke, but did not object to the reading of fiction, which "promoted cheerfulness and good humor, for that was wanted." To cultivate a taste for poetry, he should recommend, were he librarian at Woolwich, the reader to begin with Byron. "He was not the greatest of poets, but he had daring, energy, and the historic sense, with a loathing for cant in all its forms. At the beginning of the last century he was the great central inspiring force of democracy on the Continent of Europe; and when democracy extended its reading and applied itself for inspiration to poetry, apart from the facts, needs, and demands of the day, then Byron would once more have his day."

—Dr. Allan McLaughlin, who is in the United States public health and Marine Hospital service at Washington, contributes to the January *Popular Science Monthly* a paper which cuts to the quick the fallacies of that large class who make of our foreign immigrants a scapegoat for a preponderant share of our social and political evils. From ten countries named, the percentage of illiteracy among our immigrants is but about one-third of our own general average. The native children of foreign-born parents, taking the whole foreign-born population as the basis, present but about one-eighth the percentage of illiteracy found in their parents; proving that our illiterate immigrants are quick to take advantage of the opportunity of education for their children. Indeed, the native children of foreign parentage make a better showing in this respect than the children of native white parentage: statistics of school attendance give a better record to foreign-born white children and native white children of foreign parentage than to native white children of native parentage. The charge of clannishness, and consequent lack of assimilation, of the more ignorant immigrants Dr. McLaughlin rejects, so far as it is regarded as a fault peculiar to them. "The Italian, or the Jew, or the Slav, do not shrink away from their American neighbors more than their American neighbors shrink from them." The apparent excess of criminals in our foreign-born population does not mean what it seems to mean at first sight. The vast majority of crimes among any people are committed by members of the male sex between the ages of twenty and forty-five. Now seventy-five per cent. of our immigrants are between the ages of fifteen and forty on arrival, and the males are to the females as two and one-half to one. In view of these facts, the usual comparison with our entire population in the matter of criminality is manifestly unjust. The responsibility for the "slum," often charged to the immigrant, lies with money-grasping property-owners and incompetent civic administration; the immigrant is its victim, not its parent. Naturalization frauds and kindred ills are simply our own sins, taking advantage of whatever promising material immigration may offer.

—Mr. De Vinne's notable series of helpful manuals on "The Practice of Typography" is continued with 'Modern Methods of Book Composition' (New York: The Century Co.) This, while intended principally for the craftsman, may be recommended to every author. It deals first with equipment, then with composition (general, of books, difficult—as algebra, music, pedigrees—of foreign languages), with making-up, stone-work, imposition, and, last of all, machine-composition. This final section would make old Moxon of the 'Mechanick Exercises' stare and gasp, and illustration of the subject is carried so far that we have diagrams showing the correct position of the hands for the keyboard operators. Mr. De Vinne concludes, however, that the skilled hand-compositor will always be in request. He remarks of such as are fastest when they try, that they seldom set the greatest quantity of type in a week. The minuteness of the instructions in this book, in which the expert author has had the collaboration of specialists for certain chapters, is marvellous. Thus: For ease in picking up, let the type remain, unshaken, as distributed in the case; strike the planer with the end of the handle of the mallet, not with the head; pale proofs assist in detecting imperfect letters; avoid ending the first or last line of a page or paragraph with a hyphen (when possible); avoid disagreeable white spaces by doubling the measure of the longer of two parallel columns for the excess thereof; when paragraphs are sepa-

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rated by dashes, use one lead less before the dash than after it (the shoulders of the last line being equivalent to a lead); in centring a running-title, consider the page numbers as blanks. The author, too, will find duties laid on him of recasting his matter to make pages come out even or acceptably to the canons; of condensing the running-title of a left-hand page ending a chapter, etc. Like the other volumes in this encyclopædic series, the typography is exemplary for ingenuity and elegance.

—New discoveries are slowly pushing the earliest known date connected with the invention of printing back towards the traditional 1440. The fragment of an otherwise unknown Middle German poem on the Last Judgment, of which the new volume of the Publications of the Gutenberg-Gesellschaft gives a facsimile accompanied by philological, typographical and chronological studies, is printed in the same type as the 36-line Bible, the astronomical calendar for 1448, and the Paris 27-line Donatus, but in a still earlier stage while the composition is rather crude. Though of little interest from a philological and literary point of view, the importance of this find for the history of the earliest printing can hardly be overestimated. Dr. Gottfried Zedler, the author of the typographical and chronological study, assigns to it a date between 1444 and 1447. As the latter year is the probable date of the 27-line Donatus, the present piece can hardly have been printed later; as to the earlier date, the conjecture is open to some doubt. The argument is, that, as the fragment was found in Mainz, it in all probability was printed there, and as Gutenberg did not return to Mainz until 1444 or 1445, it cannot have been printed earlier. We must remember, however, that we know very little about how far Gutenberg had perfected his invention in Strassburg, and it is certainly not impossible that he brought printed sheets with him on his return to his birthplace. The same volume contains reproductions in photozincographic print of ten pages of Peter Schoeffer's 'Canon Missæ' of 1458, from the only known copy, in the Bodleian. This has no other connection with Gutenberg than the probability that he was the originator of the type. Heinrich Wallau accompanies the facsimiles with a very detailed technical study, dealing particularly with the two-colored initials and the method of printing in two colors.

—Gutenberg discoveries are seemingly in the air. At least three are given to the world in Dr. Dietrich Reichling's 'Appendices ad Hainii-Copingeri Repertorium Bibliographicum,' of which the first part is just at hand. One of these, a sheet of a Donatus, is shown by Dr. Schwenke in the December *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* to belong to the same copy as the sheet which he described in last year's publication of the Gutenberg-Gesellschaft. One of the others, 'De Statu Clericorum,' without place, printer, or date, Dr. Reichling declares without hesitation to be "ex officina Gutenbergiana, *c.* 1450." Another edition of it is described by Hain, who ascribes it, indeed, to Gutenberg, but adds two interrogation points. Reichling gives a facsimile of nine lines—reduced "about one-half"! If he had given only four lines, but in exact facsimile, it might have been possible to discuss the matter intelligently. As it is, the facsimile is worthless for the purpose of comparison, and few students would be willing to take the author's statements without further proof, which we hope the second part will supply. Reichling seems to have received a grant from the Prussian Government to search for unknown incunabula in Italian libraries. The present volume catalogues 365 such volumes, not mentioned by Hain and Copinger, and gives "Emendationes" of some 400 others which they do mention. About one-fourth of the material was found in Italian libraries, chiefly in the Vatican Library and the National Library in Naples; but not a few are from Trinity College in Dublin and the Gymnasium in Heiligenstadt, while the bulk is from the stocks (or catalogues) of two antiquarian booksellers, Leo Olschki in Florence and Jacques Rosenthal in Munich, the latter being the publisher of the volume.

—The Rogerenes were a local sect, having New London, Conn., for their habitat. They were Seventh-Day Baptists, but they held their opinions with more inclination to variation than to fixity of type. Rationality and scripturalism made that dubious mixture of their opinions which was characteristic of a century of sects and schisms. They "declined to Quakerism," but mainly in regarding its peace principles as worthy of admiration. Clearly the Quakers were nearer the kingdom of heaven in their estimation than any of the stronger sects, but the Rogerenes were sticklers for baptism and the Lord's Supper, and they were resolved to work on Sundays if they remained idle the rest of the week. In their later manifestations they were devoted to temperance and anti-slavery and the good causes generally. Their history is a pathetic one of devotion to ideas and ideals, of fines, whippings, imprisonments and other persecutions. The F. H. Gilson Company print for subscribers 'The Rogerenes, Some Hitherto Unpublished Annals belonging to the Colonial History of Connecticut.' The book consists of two parts, "A Vindication" of the Rogerenes by John R. Bolles, and a "History of the Rogerenes," by Anna B. Williams. A pious regard on the part of the latter writer for the former has burdened the book with matter which adds little to its value. From being his reader and amanuensis, in the exercise of her functions gravely questioning the importance of Mr. Bolles's researches, Miss Williams gradually acquired a lively interest in them, and on his death resolved to carry them forward and give them a more continuous and coherent presentation than that of his controversial notes. Although produced during periods of severe persecution, the Rogerene writings were, Miss Williams judges, "perfectly calm and dispassionate in tone." So were not those of their orthodox opponents, and Mr. Bolles conformed his spirit more to theirs than to that of the people whose virtues he would recommend. Miss Williams's matter, though remarkably diffuse, is a human document of unquestionable interest. Its weight goes into the opposing scale from theirs who seek to minimize the narrowness and bigotry and harshness of the Puritan theocracy. It is, moreover, eloquent of the perversion to which the characters of those offending that theocracy were subjected at the hands of personal enemies and irresponsible historians. It has much interest as a picture of colonial times over and above what is special to the New London sectaries.

—On January 9 Mr. Henry James gave his first lecture before the Contemporary Club of Philadelphia. It was literally his first essay in lecturing in public, though no one would have guessed it (writes a correspondent) from his easy and resonant delivery. "His voice is mellow and monotonous; one can listen without effort, and the complete absence of emphasis and gesture gives an agreeable impression that there is no effort on the part of the speaker. The subject was 'The Lesson of Balzac,' the great French master of us all, as Mr. James said in acknowleding his debt to the author of the 'Comédie Humaine.' But fully half the lecture was introductory to Balzac, a leisurely preamble in which Mr. James reviewed a group of novelists—George Sand, Dickens, the Brontës, Jane Austen, 'everybody's dear Jane,' but rated quite high enough, he suggested, sitting always in an arrested spring, doing woolwork, dropping stitches as she dreamed over her work, 'wool-gathering' those dropped stitches (for Mr. James, like other great men, allows himself the exuberance of puns), and so making her tapestry of human life. Her work as a whole, he said, presents no more hold for criticism than is presented by 'the surface of a smooth, bald egg.' Dickens he imagined always as calling to one's imagination a dismal large room with unwashed windows, while George Eliot one sees forever in an afternoon light, the yellow light of the close of day. Balzac is for all times and weathers; yet he is not a classic, though he has always been treated with the perfunctory admiration usually dealt out to the classics—so great that one need not read him, people decide in these days when, as Mr. James assured the members of the club, we are all writing novels of our own; they, too, the ladies who sat before him in attitudes of adoring attention. At any rate, Mr. James has proved to be his prophet. For some time it has been impossible to find a copy of Balzac at home on its shelf in the Philadelphia libraries. The passing comparison of Thackeray and Balzac was interesting. The speaker dwelt on the Frenchman's greater humanity, his fairness to a woman like his Valérie. Balzac was all for the freedom of the individual, would let a woman like that have every chance, could be in sympathy with her; whereas Thackeray had no mercy for his Becky Sharp and Blanche Amory, but delighted to scourge the 'little bare white back' of the latter. Balzac would have granted her all the privileges 'of its bareness and whiteness.' The lecture, when published, will be an entertaining and not too obscure companion to the novelist's essay on Zola."

LEE AND LONGSTREET.

Lee and Longstreet at High Tide: Gettysburg in the Light of the Official Records. By Helen D. Longstreet. Gainesville, Georgia: Published for the Author. 1904 Pp. 346.

Recollections and Letters of Robert E. Lee: By his Son, Captain Robert E. Lee.

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Doubleday, Page & Co. 1904. Pp. XII., 561.

An English army officer named Fremantle was with the Confederates at Gettysburg. During the fight of the third day he rode over to the right wing and found Longstreet sitting on a rail-fence, calmly watching the battle, while some of the troops were still passing to follow up Pickett's charge. Fremantle, supposing that he had arrived at a very opportune moment, exclaimed, "I wouldn't have missed this for anything." "The devil you wouldn't," retorted Longstreet. "I would like to have missed it very much; we've attacked and been repulsed: look there!" During the more than forty years that Longstreet lived after that day, he must often have regretted that fortune brought him to Gettysburg. This was not on account of any strictly military reason or of anything that occurred during the Civil War, but of charges against him that were first made years later and were based on alleged facts as to his conduct at Gettysburg.

Of all battlefields of the Civil War, that of Gettysburg is the most picturesque and satisfactory to see; and the leading features of the main attacks of the three days can easily be carried in mind. The van of Lee's army, marching from Chambersburg in a southeasterly direction on July 1, 1863, met the advance corps of Meade's army about a mile northwest of Gettysburg. The Federals were driven through the town, but took a firm stand on Cemetery Hill, hardly a mile to the south. Before the fight was pushed with vigor, the next day, the Federal lines had taken the form of a hook, the shank of which ran along a ridge extending south from Cemetery Hill to a very high and wooded spur called Round Top, two or three miles away. The hook was made by bending the line to the east from Cemetery Hill and coming to a point near Culp's Hill. This was the Federal right wing. In front of the Federal left, Gen. Sickles made a salient on high ground, where there was a peach orchard and a wheat field, northwest of Round Top. That night the Confederates, with Ewell's corps as their left, and Hill's next, formed a semicircle running from east of Culp's Hill through Gettysburg to west of Cemetery Hill. Most of Longstreet's corps had gone into camp several miles back, and important parts of it were still much farther away.

Some conditions were favorable to making the main attack of the second day against the Federal curve, but victory might mean no more than driving Meade's army back towards Baltimore and Washington. Lee sought a victory that should put himself between his enemies and those cities. That was possible on this field only in case he could quickly swing Longstreet's corps round so as to make a long shank to the large Confederate hook and attack Sickles from the west and southwest. Of course Lee would have preferred to have this attack made at daylight, and probably expressed his wishes so strongly that some persons assumed that he had ordered it. But at daylight the main body of Longstreet's corps had eight or ten miles of marching before they could get in proper position. Reconnoitring, marching and waiting for the arrival of troops having much farther to come delayed the opening of the battle until four P. M. Then it was pushed with great vigor, the salient was driven back to the main line, and the Federal centre and extreme right were struck heavy blows; but Federal reinforcements and a lack of the needed coöperation between different parts of the Confederate line prevented an effective victory. Longstreet's corps had done the hardest fighting and achieved the only positive successes; yet expectations had not been realized, because only the salient, not the full Federal left wing, had been outflanked. Worse still, the Confederate extreme right was under the guns now planted on a rocky spur, "Little Round Top," just north of Round Top, and Federal cavalry were on the Confederate right flank.

Lee decided to fight again on the following day, striking the Federal centre with parts of Longstreet's and Hill's corps, Longstreet being in charge. There were the short, compact, and entrenched convex lines of the Federals which could easily be reinforced at any point. The Confederate lines were concave and attenuated, and the assailants would have to march in the open for a mile, always under cannon fire, which from Little Round Top was almost an enfilade. And if Longstreet should send into the attack the troops of his extreme right, opposite those hills, they would be under an enfilade fire for at least a mile, and cavalry and infantry would surely swing in behind and destroy them. Therefore Longstreet's extreme right had to hold its position to prevent the blade of the Federal jackknife from closing. Moreover, two days earlier, Longstreet had urged Lee to take the defensive several miles farther south, so as to manœuvre Meade away from his favorable ground and compel him to take the aggressive. Now, when Longstreet was ordered to attack the Federal centre, he foresaw the defeat that resulted, and it made him heartsick, and even sullen in manner. However, necessary arrangements were completed about noon, and, after the greatest cannonade the world had ever known, Pickett's charge began. At the moment when Fremantle rode up to Longstreet the first line of the attack had struck the Federal breastworks, and a small refluent wave of Confederates was coming back. That was the turning of the highest tide of the Confederacy, and the day ended with a disastrous repulse of the Southerners. Longstreet had been in command at the most important points, and no one else could be blamed because of his failure to achieve victories. But the magnanimous Lee immediately assumed all responsibility, and said to Gen. Cadmus Wilcox, who was almost overcome with grief: "Never mind, General, *all this has been my fault—it is I* that have lost this fight, and you must help me out of it in the best way you can." His relations, which had been conspicuously cordial with Longstreet, grew to be hardly less than affectionate, and so remained until death ended them.

Two or three years after Lee's death and after Longstreet had sided with Republican plans of reconstruction, Dr. William N. Pendleton, an Episcopal clergyman in Lexington, Va., where Lee died, announced in a public address that Longstreet had been ordered to begin the battle of July 2 at daylight. Pendleton was Lee's classmate at West Point, but soon took up theology and never returned to arms except during the Civil War, when, strange to say, he was Lee's chief of artillery. Stranger still, the name of this clerical soldier, *pro tem.*, is practically unknown to military history; and when Lee ordered the greatest cannonade of the war, not Gen. Pendleton but E. P. Alexander, a brilliant colonel of artillery, was put in charge of it. However, the mere declaration of such a man was sufficient to make Longstreet, already bitterly hated politically and therefore socially, almost an outlaw among Confederates not of his corps. Lesser military lights rapidly took up and enlarged the charges: Longstreet not only disobeyed orders to attack at daylight July 2, but he also did the same the next day, and sent in with Pickett only about half as many soldiers as Lee expected; he did not wish success, etc. Therefore, was he not a military traitor to the Confederacy, as he had since been a political traitor to the South?

Longstreet wielded a pen that was as powerful as his sword; but, alas, it was very bitter, and did not spare even his affectionate and magnanimous commander. This, of course, made matters worse, and there followed a thirty-years' war of ill-tempered and even furious words. In his last years Longstreet concluded to leave careful and scientific answers to all the charges. His strength failing him, his wife nominally performed the task, but the logic and force are evidently his. Excepting now and then some bitter words, the argument is concise, lucid and extremely effective. Pendleton and Gen. John B. Gordon, respectively the first and latest of Longstreet's illustrious assailants, are thoroughly refuted, and then made somewhat ridiculous. The others were less worth noticing. Had the Longstreets turned to Fremantle's published diary, they would have found valuable corroborative evidence on several points. Longstreet had both strong and weak traits, and they were much like those of General Thomas; but the mare's-nest discovered by Pendleton and exploited by Gordon is not the true description of them.

Yet there remain two kindred questions: first, did Longstreet on July 2 and 3 act with the greatest possible promptness and with all the zeal a corps commander owes his chief, no matter if defeat is foreseen? And, secondly, ought not both attacks to have been made, if made at all, mainly from the Confederate left, or at least ought not much more vigor to have been shown there while the right corps was fighting? These are questions which we happen to know have been thoroughly discussed in the unpublished memoirs of a Confederate officer very conspicuous at Gettysburg. Therefore some of the more important questions about that wonderful battlefield must be left for a future and less personal discussion.

Nearly three-fourths of Mrs. Longstreet's book does not refer to Gettysburg, and has little or no value beyond what is biographical. The long funereal appendix is the natural mistake of a mourning widow. Instead of a large octavo, the book should have been a small duodecimo, containing but the military argument. That would have found a wider circulation and been more effective.

Let the reader with an open mind now take up the 'Recollections and Letters of Gen-

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eral Lee' which his son and namesake has lately published. It contains comparatively little that is new and important regarding his military conduct, but much that is interesting about his family life and his post-bellum career of a few years as president of what is now known as Washington and Lee University. Although the picture of the *vie intime* is neither very novel nor surprising to persons familiar with earlier biographies, the gently meandering narrative that connects the letters (many of which had been already published) leads us on from one pleasing subject to another until we feel quite at home in the family circle of the Lees, and can almost hear the voice of a man who was as conspicuously great in gentleness and goodness as he was in the art of war. Like that voice, the story is gentle and soothing, and it will not disappoint those who may wish to forget the horrors of war and the screech-owls of peace.

THE MARRIAGE INSTITUTION.

A History of Matrimonial Institutions, Chiefly in England and the United States. With an Introductory Analysis of the Literature and the Theories of Primitive Marriage and the Family. By George Elliott Howard, Ph.D., Professorial Lecturer in the University of Chicago, Author of 'Local Constitutional History of the United States.' Chicago: The University Press. 1904. 3 vols. Pp. xv., 473; xv., 497; xv., 449. Bibliographical index, case index, subject index.

The students in the new "Matrimonial Department" of the University of Chicago, to which Professor Howard has just presented the 1,700 volumes collected by him in the course of his investigations into the history of human marriage, are fortunate in possessing also the excellent résumé of so much of this material constituting the work now under review. The best treatises on human marriage written in the English language have an individuality about them seldom attained in some other fields of sociological research. Professor Howard's volumes illustrate this fact, as did the earlier studies of Crawley and Westermarck. His object is primarily "to trace the development of the family and marriage in the three homes of the English race," namely, ancient Teutonia, England, and the United States. Part I. consists of an "Analysis of the Literature and the Theories of Primitive Matrimonial Institutions," appreciative, often acute, nearly always well done. Part II. treats "Matrimonial Institutions in England" (free marriage, ecclesiastical marriage, Protestant conception of marriage, separation, and divorce); and Part III. discusses "Matrimonial Institutions in the United States," taking up in succession the obligatory civil marriage of the New England colonies, ecclesiastical rites, and the rise of civil marriage in the Southern colonies, the optional civil or ecclesiastical marriage in the middle colonies, divorce in the American colonies, marriage and divorce legislation in the United States, 1776-1903. In the section (pages 161-259 of volume iii.) on "Problems of Marriage and the Family," the state of the question to-day is considered, and the author's own sociological views crop out.

Professor Howard rightly emphasizes the "perils of historical narrative" in sociological studies, and the pitfalls of inference which have been the ruin of more than one theory of uniform social progress and doctrine of universal stages of evolution. The institutions and customs of human marriage have misled in these directions not a few brilliant scholars and investigators, who have mistaken the experimental for the permanent, and the local for the universal. The problems of human society "can only be solved by appealing to the laws of human life and organic evolution." For this reason, the theory of "the pairing family" set forth so ably in the really epoch-making works of Starcke and Westermarck must prevail against the "horde and mother-right" theory, which first found classical expression in Bachofen's 'Mutterrecht,' and the notorious "patriarchal theory," associated particularly with the name of Sir Henry Maine, though its literature begins, as Professor Howard notes, with Filmer's 'Patriarchia' (London, 1680), a royalist *Tendenzschrift*, which was duly castigated by Locke a few years later. A better understanding of Darwinism and the laws of human evolution has, in recent years, given the deathblow to several ingenious hypotheses of original promiscuity. Past all incidents and accidents of age and environment, of historical experience and race-intermixture, of religious and political prejudices, of sexual aberration and social tyranny, we can now look back, with reasonable certainty, to primitive man as exemplifying in matrimonial affairs the same instincts and the same practices in general as does the man of to-day. We can affirm, therefore, that "marriage or pairing between one man and one woman, though the union be often transitory and the rule frequently violated, is the typical form of sexual union from the infancy of the human race." In marriage man is essentially man, and its *modi operandi* are human methods and devices. The coexistence of clan-exogamy and tribal endogamy springs from the "horror of sexual union between persons who are too near, and the dislike of connection between those who are too remote"—feelings co-existent even now among civilized men and women. Here, too close is as dangerous as too far. Professor Howard agrees with Westermarck in assigning an important rôle to sympathy in "widening the sphere of sexual selection"—sympathy stimulated by an increasing likeness in the interests, ideas, sentiments, and general culture of mankind.

Polyandry and polygeny appear to be relatively unimportant factors in human sociological history. The latter, our author states, "is not a mere limitation of promiscuity, as some writers believe, but usually makes its appearance comparatively late in social history," and the social importance of both has been exaggerated. Polygeny, of course, has been more widespread than polyandry, and it has at times been favored by such circumstances as the existence of a surplus of women, lack of jealousy among women, men's desire for offspring, the restorative instinct after wars, etc. But woman's natural jealousy and her instinctive knowledge of the best form of human marriage will always cast the die in favor of monogamic sexual relations. In like manner, the "consent of woman as the normal condition of matrimonial union is never entirely destroyed by wife-purchase"—or, indeed, by any other limiting customs or institutions. For woman is always more clearly woman than man is man. Finally, Professor Howard tells us, after careful study of his abundant material: "In short, whether regarded historically or biologically, monogamy and self-betrothal appear simply as two aspects of the same institution; they are connected by a psychic bond, and together they constitute the highest type of marriage and the family." This is an eminently sane and just conclusion, both for the beginnings of the race and for its present-day life.

As to divorce, the "practically universal rule among uncivilized races that the repudiated wife, or the woman who legally puts away her husband, shall return to her own family or clan, whose duty it is to receive her," makes her condition in the lower stages of human culture not so isolated as it is often in the highest civilized society of to-day. The history of English marriage shows that it ends, as it began, in a simple contract, but with the condition of publicity added by the state after the church had largely failed to accomplish this end. In the United States, the common-law marriage, a procedure of great anarchical possibilities, has been sanctioned or favored by twenty-three States and Territories, while twelve others look that way; on the other hand, eighteen have repudiated or seem inclined to repudiate such informal agreements. It is, however, still necessary to "create or further develop a sound popular sentiment in favor of proper social control of the marital relation," such control to be afterwards crystallized in mandatory statutes with no loopholes for evasion. In the United States, typical of western civilization, "marriage and the family are emerging as purely social institutions," and the problems involved in them are "identical in kind with those which have everywhere concerned men and women from the infancy of the race." Matrimonial forms and family types are thus clearly "the products of human experience, of human habits, and are therefore to be dealt with by society according to human needs."

This social revolution began, in a sense, with the Reformation, when the temporal lawmaker emerged from the ecclesiastical tyrant. Added to this, we have, in America especially, "the veritable revolution in the condition of woman," an inescapable accompaniment of democratic progress. Professor Howard takes an optimistic view of the problems raised by the higher education of woman and her increased interest in political and intellectual affairs. The fear that "the education of woman, in connection with her growing economic independence, will prove harmful to society through her refusal of matrimony or maternity, appears groundless"; just as groundless as the old notion that woman was by nature the inferior of man and must be kept so for the sake of society. Woman is enough of mankind to have some right in determining whether marriage is her sole vocation, and her destiny merely that of a child-bearing animal. College women are no more likely to overstep the bounds of human evolution than are college men. The larger activities of "self-conscientious society" will improve woman, not destroy her. Even

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in the divorce movement hide some evidences of woman's progress and her growing independence. The increase in divorces in America, as Bryce pointed out, does not necessarily signify a fatal and permanent decline in the standard of domestic morality; this can be true locally only, *e. g.*, in certain sections of the wealthy class. The laxity of marriage laws, rather than the ease with which divorces may be obtained, is the danger-spot. Here, as elsewhere, "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." Checks upon the marriage of the unfit, a loftier popular ideal of the marriage relation, the gaining of a right perspective through earnest and persistent educational effort, the according to sex questions an honorable place in the future educational programme, the realization of the sociological value of coeducation and its rôle as a producer of happy unions, the sacrifice of some arithmetic or a little more Latin for practical suggestions in home-building, the repudiation of the dual standard of sexual morality, the fostering of the larger altruism protective of "the permanent interests of the future against the more temporary values of the present," the development of individualization for the sake of socialization—these are some of the aims and ideals, reforms and improvements in law, written and unwritten, advocated by the author.

His work, based on the investigation of all accessible literature, historical, scientific, and legal, touches upon every problem involved in marriage and divorce, and its optimistic conclusions are quite in harmony with the true interpretation of evolutionary facts concerning the social development of mankind. It would be well if the extreme advocates of "divorce reform" and the Mormonophobiacs could give it careful perusal. For even the general public Professor Howard's volumes cannot fail to be both interesting and instructive, for they deal attractively with the most human of all institutions, and contain a mass of facts nowhere else obtainable. A bibliography, occupying pages 264-411 of volume iii., and a double-column subject index extending to thirty-seven pages, make this work very easy of use for reference purposes. What few misprints the reviewer has noticed, *e. g.*, in the transliteration of foreign names of tribes and peoples, are of but the slightest importance, and do not detract from a well-conceived, well-written, well-printed book. It takes its place beside Westermarck, but is *sui generis*.

Fifty Years of Fleet Street; being the Life and Recollections of Sir John R. Robinson. Compiled and edited by Frederick Moy Thomas. Macmillan. 1904. Pp. 404.

On opening this book we turned first to the chapter upon "Americans in London." It is made up of anecdotes of President Grant, of Tilden, Bigelow, Sumner, Lowell, Motley, Holmes, Conkling, Bayard, Mark Twain, Artemus Ward, and Bret Harte. We confess, the impression gained was not favorable. One sees here, what is not infrequently to be observed in our cousins, the facility with which an Englishman manages to repeat a story, first told by an American, so as to blunt the point. An example or two of this tendency, as well as the fact that half a page is given to some trifling remarks of Gen. Grant's son Fred, then not much more than a mere boy, made us expect to find the book superficial, and probably not worth the reading. A sounder judgment, however, awaited an actual examination of these pages from the beginning. The text is interesting and at times absorbing.

John Richard Robinson (1828-1893) came of a Unitarian family in Essex. He early devoted himself to newspaper work; went up to London in 1852, and three years afterward was made sub-editor of the *Weekly News*. From that he was advanced to be editor of the *Daily News*—founded by Charles Dickens—one of the great newspapers, as everybody knows, of London, and finally its manager. He was knighted in 1893 because of his journalistic efforts in behalf of public interests. He was a man of quiet manner, very observant, and accustomed to jot down in diary form his impressions of events and of people whom he had met. Once a year regularly he read through Scott's novels and Miss Austen's. The editor of this good-sized volume, a son of a friend of Sir John, and himself for years associated with the chief editor in newspaper work, here and there gives us Robinson's own words, but seems to have elaborated by far the greater part of the book.

Every book has, or ought to have, a certain tone to it. We can say of 'Fifty Years' that a vein of good nature and social enjoyment is distinctly visible throughout it. It is brimful of stories; almost every one is worth the telling. We have much about Mr. Gladstone, perhaps little of it new to English readers. Public men in general are delineated by Mr. Robinson with a light and kindly touch, and some characteristic anecdote is related of each in turn. There is a valuable chapter upon the subject of journalism, with a discussion of the question of the advantage or disadvantage of signed leaders. The difference between the newspapers of Paris and London is aptly explained. In the treatment of the war correspondent, what is said of Archibald Forbes is extremely interesting, as are the references to the Americans MacGahan and Millet. Harriet Martineau was long an editorial contributor to the *Daily News*. The chapter devoted to her is one of the best, presenting in clear outline the salient characteristics of a remarkable woman. One is tempted to quote liberally. Lord Carmarthen, when he "put up for Brixton, happened to be a very youthful-looking candidate, and a rude man called out to him at an open-air meeting, held the day before the poll: 'Does you mother know you're out?' 'No,' was the reply, 'but she will know I am *in* to-morrow'" (p. 56). Speaking of the odd way in which old-fashioned reporters used to be precise, Robinson praises their good intentions with an illustration drawn from Henry J. Byron, who was once pressed by a host for an opinion upon a particular wine they were tasting. "Ah!" said Byron, sipping it carefully and divided between his wish to avoid hurting his friend's feelings and the desire to maintain his credit as a judge, "I think it means well." There is a good deal of harmless gossip about play writers and actors. Jerrold is often mentioned, and the popularity of his "Black-Eyed Susan" remarked upon—"a crude, bombastic work of his younger days." Such is the editor's criticism; but the play found favor in America, when E. L. Davenport played *William* "in the good old days."

"It is said that on one occasion a young actor, having to play the part of the hero, was seized with stage-fright, and in the scene of the court-martial was unable to utter a word. The President of the Court, seeing how things stood, found a brilliant way out of the difficulty. 'We know, William,' he said, 'what it is you would tell us were it not that emotion checks your utterance. You would say that you heard your wife Susan giving signals of distress; you found her battling with a pirate. You cut him down like an old junk; and, had he been First Lord of the Admiralty, d—— *you*, you would have done it the same'" (p. 190).

In the chapter upon Americans in London, there are two observations which will hardly pass unchallenged on this side of the Atlantic. Speaking of Mr. Sumner's surprise, on his visit to England in 1872, at being regarded as anti-English, the writer proceeds: "They looked upon the learned Senator, rather unjustly, as the author of those celebrated 'indirect claims' which Lord Chief Justice Cockburn's brilliant pleading at Geneva had made more odious to English folk than before." Why *unjustly?* The indirect claims, by the way, had been removed from the consideration of the Tribunal by joint action of the two governments, so that Sir Alexander Cockburn was not called upon at Geneva to express any views thereon whatever, even had it been the office of a member of the court to put forth a "pleading," brilliant, or otherwise. Mr. Motley is termed a "famous American Minister . . . chiefly remembered for his splendid history, 'The Rise of the Dutch Republic,' and a rather foolish epigram about not caring who had the necessaries of life so long as he had the luxuries." It is really too bad that such a cold-blooded assertion as this should be charged against Motley. Little did Dr. Holmes dream of getting his friend into such a scrape when, by an allusion to "my friend the historian," he set going Motley's witty remark: "Give us the luxuries of life, and we will dispense with its necessaries."

The book is printed from clear, large type, and has an index of names.

Men of the Covenant. By Alexander Smellie, M. A. Fleming H. Revell Co. 1904.

The Jacobite eloquence of Mr. Lang and Mr. W. L. Mathieson's defence of Scottish episcopacy seem to have aroused in Mr. Smellie a fear lest the memory of the Covenanters should fade away amid the panegyrics which are now being heaped upon their foes. With a view to redressing the balance, he tells once more the story of Lowland and Calvinist heroism to a generation that may have forgotten the works of Dodds and Gilfillan. His general attitude toward the ecclesiastical policy of Charles II. is frankly stated in the preface:

"Some may complain that the atmosphere of these chapters is too whiggish, and that they scarcely so much as try to understand and appreciate the Cavalier. I can but plead that to me it seems evident that the Covenanter, in the main, was incontestably right; although I hope that I have never been conspicuously unfair to his opponent."

These words are an honest forecast of the contents, for while Mr. Smellie reserves his enthusiasm for the Covenanters, his strictures upon their persecutors are

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penned more in sorrow than in anger. He can appreciate the firmness of Montrose and the daring of Claverhouse. It is only men like Sir Robert Grierson of Lag ("Redgauntlet") who receive his unstinted condemnation. "He had not even the superficial polish with which some of his brother Royalists bedizened their cruelties. He was as ungracious in manner as he was hard of heart, a Judge Jeffreys on a smaller scale. . . . To this hour, in Dumfries and Galloway, a paramount horror cleaves to his name."

The plan of Mr. Smellie's book is well fitted to show the Covenanters at their best, since he dismisses with a brief prologue the period which lies between the swearing of the National Covenant in 1638 and the Restoration. We do not mean to imply that Johnston of Wariston and Alexander Henderson, with their followers who rallied to the Presbyterian cause against Charles I., were destitute of conviction and heroism, but the best advocate in the world cannot make out a good case for the Covenanters in 1650-51. Mr. Smellie's candor is revealed in his unwillingness to sanction the hollow compromise that was patched up between Charles II. and the Kirk. Like every one else who is not blinded by partisanship, he can see that dislike and dread of Cromwell made the elect cut sharp corners on the eve of Worcester Fight. At the same time the feud of Resolutioners and Remonstrants is not an essential feature of his narrative. Amid the martyrdoms of 1685 the hypocrisy of a former generation is forgotten, and the Calvinist stands before us in all the robustness of an unbending will.

It is difficult to say whether the Covenanters are more interesting when considered as Scots or when considered as the disciples of Geneva. Certain it is that if the Stuart sovereigns of the seventeenth century knew little about English feeling, they knew still less about the sentiment of that realm which they had deserted for Whitehall. The indifference of the British Parliament towards Indian affairs, as satirized by Macaulay, was far less remarkable than the absolute neglect of Scottish interests which is testified to by Clarendon. "When the whole nation," he says, "was solicitous to know what passed weekly in Germany and Poland and all other parts of Europe, no man ever inquired what was doing in Scotland, nor had that kingdom a place or mention of one page of any gazette," Even Cromwell failed to grasp the force of Scottish patriotism, and regarded the sister kingdom in much the same light as that in which Metternich regarded Hungary. Had Lauderdale added a dash of honesty to his other versatile gifts, he might have kept Charles II. from committing himself to a policy of oppression. Instead, he became the local agent of a despotism which had no better wit than to drive the Lowland peasant and the Calvinist parson to the wall. When Balfour of Burleigh withstood the appeal of David Hackston for Sharp's gray hairs and slew the Archbishop on Magus Moor, he was not acting the militant saint but the irritated Scot, and we feel quite sure that Stubbs would have allowed little piety to many of the most vociferous Covenanters. Yet their advocacy of a theological cause had some psychological effect upon even the most astute of the Calvinist politicians, while the rank and file died in the faith of Knox without hesitation or misgiving. Holland had gone through the same sort of trial on a larger scale, and issued from it a century earlier. The characteristic feature of the "Killing Time" is that the resistance of the Covenanters to Charles and James represents an extremely late instance of religious zeal blended intimately with patriotic enthusiasm. In the first half of the eighteenth century this combination of elements has virtually disappeared. The influence of Catholicism upon the Jacobites is an eviscerated thing compared with the promptings which Richard Cameron and Donald Cargill received from Calvinism.

Like all successful works of edification, Mr. Smellie's story keeps close to the concrete and the particular. In fact, his chapters form a series of portraits which is large enough to take in the heroines of the Covenant as well as the heroes. Executions among women of the Cameronian persuasion were not frequent, but sometimes they occurred, and the demeanor of the victims at the moment of crucial test seems borrowed from the age of Polycarp. Marion Harvie and Isabel Alison, two servants, were executed in the Grassmarket at Edinburgh towards the close of January, 1681. Just at the end, a curate was ordered by Bishop Paterson to pray for them.

"'Marion,' said the Bishop, addressing the first of them, 'ye said you would never hear a curate; now you shall be forced to hear one'; and he commanded one of his suffragans to pray. But he was outwitted. 'Come, Isabel,' exclaimed the unconquerable serving maid, 'let us sing the Twenty-third Psalm.' Line by line she repeated the calming and uplifting words which Scottish children are taught so soon as they can lisp their syllables; and line by line these two, who were appointed to death, sang of the Lord their Shepherd, and of the Valley of the Shadow where His rod and His staff sustained them, and of God's House in which, for evermore, their dwelling-place should be. And not a petition of the curate's prayer was heard."

In a higher station Lady Balcarres and Lady Baillie showed such zeal for the Presbyterian cause that Mr. Smellie includes them also in his group of "Women which Laboured in the Gospel."

Mr. Smellie's narrative covers the twenty-eight years which separate the Restoration from the Revolution, and embraces all the celebrated cases of martyrdom. Tragedies like the murder of John Brown and the execution of James Renwick call for no special comment when they occur among the religious animosities of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. English Jesuits under Elizabeth showed the same courage which Mr. Smellie describes with so much unction in the case of Scottish Calvinists. As martyrs, these men illustrate some of the finest traits in human character, but to the historian Mr. Smellie's evangelical phrases seem a good deal like question-begging. However, he deals with facts which, in the main, are well-established, and every one must interpret them for himself. The same blood which is the seed of the Church is the seed of sects when the Church is rent by schism, and while we must admire the dour courage of the Covenanter, we must, before we give the whole praise to pure religion, consider two things—the admixture of racial stubbornness and the existence of a similar temper among Catholics and Anabaptists. This observation is called forth by the glowing periods of Mr. Smellie, which sometimes tend toward turgidity.

In point of style this book is unusual. Mr. Smellie is anxious to glorify his heroes, but he cannot conceal the fact that he is a man of wide reading. Accordingly literary allusions of more or less aptness are embroidered with the narrative at junctures where we should prefer to have the unvarnished story. At his best, however, Mr. Smellie writes well, and his pages bear the mark not only of genuine enthusiasm, but of honest intent.

The Early Institutional Life of Japan. By K. Asakawa, Ph.D. Tokyo, 1903.

This important essay, the author of which was Hadley scholar at Yale and is now lecturer on the Far East in Dartmouth College, professes to be merely a brief introduction to the study of feudal origins in Japan. The writer modestly says that his work is intended primarily for criticism and discussion, but he guides the Western student into practically unexplored regions of history, and it seems hardly too much to say that he has here laid the foundation-stone for the critical study of early Japanese institutions. It is a good many years since Titsingh, Siebold, and Hoffmann used to believe in the Emperor Jimmu's having ascended the throne in 660 B. C., but no English or German scholar has yet attempted, as Dr. Asakawa here attempts, to draw a comprehensive picture of Japanese institutions prior to the great Reform of 645 A. D., or to study in detail the sweeping changes that were then introduced.

Mr. Aston's well-known version of the *Nihongi* gains enormously in interest if read in the light of Dr. Asakawa's researches, just as the first book of Livy, which deals with a similar dawn-period of history, becomes far more interesting after a perusal of Sir John Seeley's historical introduction. The *Nihongi* and the older and more fabulous *Kojiki* furnish, of course, the chief data for institutional study, and the latter of these books is also fortunately accessible to Western students through Mr. Basil Chamberlain's excellent translation. Notwithstanding its astounding legends of the gods, the *Kojiki* may fairly be regarded, in Mommsen's phrase, as "historisch werthlos wie staatsrechtlich belehrend"; and so it has been here treated.

After a lucid discussion of the value of these and other subsidiary sources, the author devotes his first and longest chapter to a description of Japanese institutions as they existed about 500 A. D. Then follow two chapters, one on the events leading up to the Reform, the other, a particularly good one, on the political doctrine of the Chinese by which the Reformers were so strongly influenced. Next comes a long chapter on the new institutions introduced under Kôtoku and his successor; and lastly a short chapter sketches the subsequent development. The various topics are well arranged and the facts clearly marshalled, while the author's inferences and arguments are marked by critical caution and a commendable absence of cocksureness. For instance, in summarizing his conclusions as to the pre-Reform period, he says that they are "hardly more than a series of suppositions separated by wide gaps of thought."

Just at this time almost any fresh information relating to Japan is sure to be

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read with interest. To those who would understand the devoted loyalty of the Japanese to their Emperor, of which we have heard so much during the present war, the first section of Chapter I. will be extremely enlightening. A most interesting account is there given of the origin of that sentiment, "which does not seem to have been in the least eclipsed, but, on the contrary, rather stimulated, by Japan's competition with the Western nations"; and its intimate connection with Shinto is convincingly shown.

Perhaps the most striking feature in the book to a Western student unfamiliar with early Japanese institutions is the parallelism which is constantly being suggested between the primitive customs of Japan and those of early Rome. Among these may be mentioned agnatic relationship, the vital importance of maintaining the family *sacra*, the *patria potestas*, the function of the *gens* (*uji*), and the early conception of private title to land. No less remarkable is the fact, which is here so clearly pointed out, that the Emperor (not the Mikado, a term against the use of which we are properly warned) was the prime mover in the Reform of 645, just as he was in that of 1868, and that these revolutions both aimed at a restoration of the imperial authority.

The author's style is clear for the most part, though he has neither ease nor elegance equal to that of writers like Professor Hozumi or Baron Kentaro Kaneko. It seems ungracious to criticise the English used by any foreign scholar, yet one cannot help wishing that this text had been emended by some one thoroughly familiar with correct English. We meet with such phrases as "charged to their descendants' keep for all time" (p. 29); "this inference . . . cannot be positively sure of its own validity" (p. 66); "an apparatus that ground on the peasant population" (p. 296)—all of which might have been avoided. The same is true of words such as "distemper" in the sense of anger (p. 70, note 1), and "distancing" in the sense of separating (p. 213). Though there are three pages of errata, these do not by any means cover all the misprints to be found in the text, of which "opinion" for opium (p. 184, note 1) is an amusing example. But when due allowance has been made for such blemishes, which are excusable, if anywhere, in the work of a foreigner, the author is to be congratulated on having successfully accomplished a difficult piece of pioneer work.

Apollo. Par Salomon Reinach. Paris: Hachette. 1904.

The Story of Art throughout the Ages: An Illustrated Record. By S. Reinach. From the French by Florence Simmonds. With nearly 600 illustrations. Scribners. 1904.

Under the somewhat fanciful title of 'Apollo,' chosen to mark its relationship to his introduction to the Greek and Latin classics, published in 1889 with the name of 'Minerva,' M. Salomon Reinach brings out a "General History of the Plastic Arts," as delivered in twenty-five lectures at the École du Louvre in the winter of 1902-'3. The first of the lectures opens with the question: "Is it possible to give, in twenty-five lessons, an idea of the evolution of the plastic arts—that is, of the arts the productions of which are representable by drawing—architecture, sculpture, painting?" The answer must be, Yes, when the teacher is Salomon Reinach. M. Reinach's exceptional equipment has enabled him to pack into his three hundred-odd pages a general history of art which not only is admirable in its broad views, but is full of acumen in the treatment of doubtful points of detail, and of illuminating and delightful criticism of particular artists, while the style is as fascinating as that of a novel should be, but seldom is. The book is a little masterpiece, and one does not wonder that it was difficult to find room for the audiences that flocked to hear the lectures when orally delivered.

Of course, the latest results of criticism, of connoisseurship, and of archæology are at M. Reinach's fingers' ends, and he is generally at one with the best and most recent authorities, though he does not hesitate now and then to differ from others, and to give, with due warning, opinions of his own, as when, *e. g.*, he dates the Venus of Milo some three hundred years earlier than do "the majority of the archæologists of to-day," and considers her a work of the school of Phidias, and an Amphitrite. His taste and judgment are as sure as his knowledge is exact, and it requires a certain boldness to question either the adequacy of his appreciations or the accuracy of his statements. Perhaps, without too great temerity, one may venture to find his account of Millet insufficient rather than wrong, and to wonder that he could discuss Donatello without mentioning the "Gattamelata," and could find Verrocchio's "Colleoni" unquestionably "the most beautiful equestrian figure of the Renaissance." The only statement of fact that strikes us as incautious is in the discussion, on page 165, of the relation of Antonello da Messina to the use, in Italy, of oil colors. M. Reinach says:

"It is well to say that oil colors were employed at this epoch only to give a superficial lustre to a very solid painting executed in distemper (glue or white of egg), which formed the basis of the picture. The first painter who painted directly and exclusively in oils was the Spaniard Velasquez."

M. Reinach may well be right as to the Italian schools, which he evidently had principally in mind, but it would seem that he must, temporarily, have forgotten Hals and Rubens, both of whom antedate Velasquez, and neither of whom shows in his work any trace of the underpainting in distemper.

The book is profusely illustrated with very small but clear half-tone cuts, and each lecture is supplied with a valuable bibliography. It is assuredly the best brief general history of art, if not the best such history of any length, that has yet appeared. It deserved a better and more faithful translation than has been given it by Florence Simmonds. Her version is readable enough, and succeeds, generally, in approximating to the meaning of the original, but it is lax and without appreciation of the finer shades of the French, and is occasionally not only infelicitous, but misleading. To say that Leonardo's method of painting was a "complicated amalgam" does not express the idea conveyed by M. Reinach's "cuisine compliquée," while to speak of Raphael's "loans" where borrowings is intended is to reverse the meaning. "Un jour d'atelier" means simply a studio light, and has nothing to do with "the sunlight of the studio," whatever that may be; and "moins pondéré et plus agressif" is singularly transformed into "less ponderous and aggressive." When M. Reinach says of Fra Bartolommeo that he "knew how to compose and to paint," he is speaking of his influence on Raphael, and has a reason for the words he uses which one would never divine in Miss Simmonds's statement that the Frate "was a remarkable colorist." The fault here is probably indolence, but in another instance one suspects intention. M. Reinach says that Millais early abandoned the principles of Pre-raphaelitism and became "un bon peintre bourgeois"; Miss Simmonds boldly makes him "a first-rate painter on traditional lines"—certainly a less piquant characterization.

The reason why we suspect intentional mistranslation in this last instance is that the French text is more or less altered and very considerably added to wherever English art is under discussion. The additions vary from the insertion of the single word "beautiful" in the mention of the Banqueting-hall at Whitehall to passages nearly a page in length concerning the English painters of the eighteenth century and the painters and sculptors of contemporary England. Of the alterations we will give one specimen, contrasting what M. Reinach says of English Gothic with what Miss Simmonds makes him say. This, as literally as we can translate it, is the original statement:

"In England it [Gothic architecture] took on an aspect peculiar to that country, characterized by a relative heaviness, and, later, by an unpleasant profusion of vertical lines, particularly in the window openings."

Under Miss Simmonds's hands this becomes the following:

"In England it assumed a national character, the main features of which were a greater structural sobriety and care for solidity, combined later with more richness and beauty in the ribbing of vaults and in ornament generally, and a tendency to rely upon length for sublimity of effect, rather than upon height, as did the French architects. It has, however, been made a reproach to the English Gothic artists that they made an excessive use of vertical lines, especially in their windows."

There are other small divergences from the French text, as, for instance, the appearance of Ostade in a comparison with Meissonier, where the French gives Vermeer (a much happier choice); and in these one can suspect no intention. As they occur in the last chapter, which M. Reinach tells us has been several times rewritten, and as a separate note for insertion shows that the translation was made before the final revision of the original, they may well represent an earlier state of the text. The additions and alterations we have commented on, however, are the less susceptible of such explanation in that they are accompanied by extra-illustrations taken from other books. They may, nevertheless, have M. Reinach's authorization, as they may, conceivably, be considered improvements; but, if they are authorized, some statement to that effect should surely be made. If they are not, there is still more need of explanation. As it is, one is never certain whether he is getting the opinions of M. Reinach or those of Miss Simmonds.

Apart from intentional additions, the less compact style of Miss Simmonds must add

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somewhat to the length of the volume, but by using double columns and smaller type the Scribners have got the matter into somewhat fewer pages than the French publishers found necessary. The double column was perhaps adopted on account of the many small illustrations which less frequently cut the letterpress into awkward shapes than when the lines run across the page, but the device is never pleasant in a small book, and only tolerable in the larger page of a magazine. In spite of its fewer pages, the American book is larger and thicker than the French one and very much heavier. The cuts vary a little in quality in the two editions, but without special advantage to either. M. Reinach's charming preface and the opening paragraph of his first chapter are, for some reason, omitted, and there is no translator's preface and no indication on the title-page that the book is made up of lectures, though why the fact should be suppressed it is difficult to imagine.

Work and Wages. By Sydney J. Chapman. With an introduction by Lord Brassey. Longmans, Green & Co. 1904.

This book is a continuation of Lord Brassey's 'Work and Wages,' and 'Foreign Work and English Wages,' published respectively in 1872 and 1879; Professor Chapman here brings the inquiry down to the present date. It relates in general to the industrial efficiencies of the leading countries, and in particular to the coal trade, the iron and steel industries, shipbuilding, machinery, textile and chemical industries, and railways. The presentation of facts is admirably done, considering the moderate space that it occupies, and the deductions are made with scientific precision. In fact, the work may be regarded as an example of the methods proper to be followed in such investigations.

Professor Chapman wisely begins by exposing some prevalent fallacies. It seems to be commonly believed that the welfare of a country may be measured by the volume of its external trade. The notion is equally common that a country is "beaten" by its foreign rivals in respect of efficiency in the production of such goods as it buys abroad. But it is an elementary proposition that exchange is regulated by differences in comparative cost of production. Differences in comparative prices may start trade, but they cannot keep it going. In one country the cost of production of two things may be less than in another; but it does not follow that both will be exported. It may pay better—it often does pay better—to export one and import the other. The illustrations of this truth form one of the most interesting departments of economic science, and to ignore them is to fail to understand the nature of commerce. On similar principles, it is evident that a particular country might be prosperous without any foreign trade whatever, although the case could not occur under modern systems of transportation.

As Dr. Cannan observed not long ago, many fallacies are caused by the application of military metaphors to foreign trade. "In regard to international relations, the first business of the teacher of economic theory is to tear to pieces and trample upon the misleading military metaphors which have been applied by sciolists to the peaceful exchange of commodities." When we speak of "conquering markets," we mean that we sell in them. It is obvious, as Professor Chapman says, that such a victory means that the victors must be conquered in the same way. In war a nation might only win, but in trade a country cannot only sell. "Commercial supremacy" is a common phrase, but those who use it do not define it or know what it means. But if it means large exports, it must mean large imports as well. Estimates of the money cost of production in different countries are of no value in determining efficiency in production, or as indicating which countries can undersell others. But such estimates are of value when we know something of the natural resources, the efficiency of laborers and managers, the facilities for transportation, etc., in different countries. To impart such knowledge is the aim of this inquiry.

It is impossible for us to review, except in the most general way, the results which Professor Chapman attains. We must content ourselves with enumerating some of the conditions to be investigated in determining the comparative efficiency of two countries in one branch of industry—the iron and steel trade. We must know the amount of work to be done in assembling materials at the furnace, the rates on railways, canals, the lakes and the ocean, the cost of smelting and of producing steel, the supplies of coal and ore and their cost, and the cost of producing coke. We must also estimate the burden of taxes and tariffs, the cost of capital and the cost of labor. We must understand the conditions under which money wages are expended, the cost of house rent, of food, and the quantities and qualities of the commodities which laborers consume. When we consider that industrial efficiency is a function of all these variables, it is evident that very little of what is laid before the public on this subject is of any value at all. The mass of mankind is no more competent to grasp such an inquiry than to compute the precession of the equinoxes or the period of a comet. To most minds any scientific investigation is so laborious as to be repellent, and we cannot recommend Professor Chapman's book to the ordinary reader. But such as are really interested in the quest for truth will find it thoroughly informing and delightful.

Russian Life and Society. As seen in 1866-'67 by Appleton and Longfellow, two young travellers from the United States of America, who had been officers in the Union Army. And a journey to Russia with General Banks in 1869. Prepared by Brevet-Captain Nathan Appleton. Boston: Wood & Co. 1904.

The title of this little book is a misnomer, to a great extent. "My Recollections" would have been both more appropriate and more accurate. It begins with a description of the voyage to Brest, and of a stay in Paris; the narrative of the journey thence (with various stops) is interspersed with letters to and from relatives, including complete details—dates, and the like—concerning Mr. Thomas G. Appleton's yacht. Then follows a jumble of poetry, a biography of Gen. de Trobriand, and much discourse about Mme. Ristori, the New York Yacht Club, other clubs, beach races at Newport, Lincoln, and the Emancipation (with the Emancipation Proclamation in full, likewise the Constitutional Amendments, and personal recollections of President Lincoln, whom Captain Appleton never met—*all apropos of* a portrait of Lincoln by W. M. Hunt, and the failure to find Hunt in Paris). At last, on page 72, the two young men arrive in Russia. During their two months' stay they enjoyed many privileges, and their mild experiences are pleasantly narrated, chiefly in letters. But they are hardly important at the present day. Indeed, the tone of the book is that of a memorial prepared for admiring friends, and padded out to the requisite bulk with precise biographies of every person whom the author ever met or to whom he refers. For example, from an entry in his diary at the age of seventeen, he finds that he met, at a reception, a Mr. Smith. He tells at what hotel Mr. Smith was stopping, and winds up thus: "He won my heart and esteem at once. I was devoted to him. One day we strolled down Broadway, and he treated me to oysters and a glass of beer, and I thought I was a man of the world." (This, with many other irrelevant matters, including poetry about Allston's picture known as "Rosalie," and letters from the writer's brother, dated 1844, is injected into the middle of his Russian experiences.) Just as the reader has given up in despair all hope of finding anything about Russia, he is soothed with a fragment, and then the irritating process above described begins again. Captain Appleton persists in calling the Russian hood, the *bashlyk*, the "basilisk," and writes "morijiks" for "muzhiks," while other errors (probably typographical) result in curious names being applied in various directions.

Captain Appleton went again to Russia, in 1869, accompanying General Banks, spending about one month and again enjoying favorable opportunities, on his way to the opening of the Suez Canal. For good measure, he throws in a summary concerning the territory of Russia, the system of government, the serfs, and other miscellany, plus a sketch written in London in 1870, in which he treats of "Europe and America in 1870. . . Russia and the United States."

The illustrations are as badly assorted as the contents, and not well reproduced. Stripped of extraneous and utterly superfluous matter, the title-material might have furnished a successful magazine article of the travel class.

The Georgics of Virgil. Translated from the Latin into English by J. W. Mackail, Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1904.

One hardly knows whether a narrowly limited *édition de luxe* of the Georgics, at $7.50 per copy, is intended to appeal to the classical scholarship of America or to our professional collectors, who are not generally supposed to care much as to the literary content provided the material elements of the volume be satisfactory—the edition rare enough and the price high enough. The classical scholar would appreciate more keenly, we think, an edition of the Georgics so attractively prepared as to tempt the college graduate to an actual acquaintance with its contents, and at so reasonable a price as to constitute no ser-

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ious burden upon his purse. Such an edition should comprise an adequate introduction, and sufficient annotation to make its reading fairly easy. It should, of course, be free of all suggestion of the grind of the preparatory school, for the fame of Virgil suffers a serious handicap in the fact that the American college student gets his only taste of his work at a stage when the struggle with forms, syntax and vocabulary forbids any adequate appreciation of the poet's literary qualities. It is not particularly to the credit of our classicists that scarcely a single piece of Latin or Greek literature has been put by American hands in such dress that an educated gentleman can feel like giving it a place upon his library table, dipping into it occasionally as a means of recreation, and bringing it to the attention of visiting friends. The means of acquiring an elementary knowledge of Latin and Greek we produce in abundance; that attitude towards the literature of these tongues which would tempt to the use of such means for any higher and more lasting purpose than the securing of a degree, is sadly wanting.

We welcome Mr. Mackail's edition, then, if for nothing more than its mere suggestion to the few of our classical scholars who will see it, that there is some other possible use for a portion of Virgil's text than to serve as an aid in getting boys and girls past their college entrance examinations. Those who really care for the Georgics would have appreciated a little of the illuminating comment which Mr. Mackail is so well able to give, but doubtless the simple translation was all that his own purpose and that of his publishers required. Agreement as to what such a translation should be is, of course, impossible. Our own opinion is, that the conscious attempt to give an archaic air to the translation of a writer like Virgil may easily be overdone. "What plantations soever thou wilt set over thy fields, scatter fatting dung, and hide it heedfully deep in earth," is not English of to-day (if of any other day), nor does it bear to the English of to-day any such relation as the original text bore to the ordinary Latin of the early years of the Empire. We find, however, extended passages of very felicitous rendering. Take the following, for instance, descriptive of the coming of spring:

"The bountiful land breaks into birth, and the fields unbosom to warm breezes of the West; everywhere delicate moisture overflows, and the grasses dare in safety to trust themselves to Spring suns, nor does the vine tendril fear gathering gales or sleet driven down the sky by the blustering North, but thrusts forth her buds and uncurls all her leaves."

That in choice of materials and mechanical execution the volume is fully up to the standard of the Riverside Press is all that needs to be said in that respect. One could easily recall other bits of Latin literature well worth similar honor, but, we repeat, there is greater need that these works be presented to possible American readers in tasteful and attractive dress, and yet at prices which will stimulate their purchase for actual use rather than for the cases of collectors.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arthur, J. C., and others. Plant Morphology. Revised by O. W. Caldwell. Henry Holt & Co. $1 net.
Ascham's English Works. Edited by William A. Wright. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Ball, Francis Kingsley. A German Drill Book. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Bilse, Ex-Lieutenant. Dear Fatherland. John Lane. $1.50.
Borough Customs. Vol. I. Edited for the Selden Society by Mary Bateson. London: Quaritch.
Roswell's Life of Johnson. 2 vols. in one. Henry Frowde.
Bradley, A. C. Shakesperean Tragedy. Macmillan Co. $3.25.
Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress. With Cruikshank's illustrations. Henry Frowde.
Burkitt, F. Crawford. Early Eastern Christianity. Dutton. $2 net.
Burrill, Katharine. Corner Stones. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Butcher, S. H. Harvard Lectures on Greek Subjects. Macmillan Co. $2.25.
Carpenter, Edward. The Art of Creation. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Catalogue of the Exhibition of Pewter held in Clifford's Inn Hall from February 24 to March 26, 1904. London.
Check List of Foreign Newspapers in the Library of Congress. Washington.
Chittenden, Hiram Martin, and Alfred Talbot Richardson. Life, Letters, and Travels of Father Pierre-Jean De Smet. 4 vols. Francis P. Harper. $15 net.
Clark, Annie M. L. Poems. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
Cochrane, Charles H. Modern Industrial Progress. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $3 net.
Coutts, Francis. Musa Verticordia. John Lane. $1.25 net.
Cowen, Thomas. The Russo-Japanese War. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.20 net.
Crutwell, Maud. Verrocchio. Imported by Scribners. $2 net.
Dulaney, Emma C. A Sky Panorama. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.
Early Western Travels, 1748-1846. Edited by Reuben G. Thwaites. Vol. X. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.
Forbes, A. C. English Estate Forestry. Longmans. $3.50 net.
Forms of Public Addresses. Edited by George P. Baker. Henry Holt & Co. $1.12 net.
Fraser, Edward. Famous Fighters of the Fleet. Macmillan Co. $1.75.
Freeman, E. A. Western Europe in the Fifth Century. Macmillan Co. $3.25.
Frost, Thomas Gold. The Incorporation and Organization of Corporations. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.50 net.
Grey, Marian E. Greselda. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co. 75 cents.
Half a Century with the Providence Journal. Providence: Journal Co.
Handschin, Charles Hart. Das Sprichwort bei Hans Sachs. Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin. 50 cents.
Hartley, C. Gasquoine. A Record of Spanish Printing. London: Walter Scott Publishing Co. 10s. 6d. net.
Hearn, Lafcadio. In Ghostly Japan.—Exotics and Retrospectives.—A Japanese Miscellany.—Shadowings. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Hellprin, Angelo. The Tower of Pelée. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Hibbert, Walter. Life and Energy. Longmans. $1.
Hogg, Ethel M. Quintin Hogg: A Biography. Dutton. $3 net.
Homenaje á D. Francisco Codera. Saragossa: Mariano Escar.
Howitt, A. W. The Native Tribes of South-East Australia. Macmillan Co. $6.50.
Hoyt, Wayland. Home Ideals. Philadelphia: Griffith & Rowland Press.
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